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## ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

### BUENOS AYRES.

Consul Bridgett to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord,

I HAVE the honour to enclose herewith a Report on the Railways in the Argentine Republic based on Official Documents.

I have, &c.

(Signed) RONALD BRIDGETT.

Report on Railways in the Argentine Republic for the Year 1889.

The following summary is compiled from the official report of the Director-General of the Office of Control of Railways in the Argentine Republic, from which it appears that the railway system is making rapid extension, and, with the exception of a short line in the province of Santa Fé, is entirely the result of British enterprise and capital. As is well known, there is perhaps no country in the world where railways can be made with such great facilities. The principal lines run over a level grass plain, offering no engineering difficulties, and without rivers of any importance to cross. There are, however, one or two exceptions which skirt the spurs of the Andes, where some difficult bridge work has been executed over streams which in summer are nothing but dry beds of gravel, but, after heavy rains, become in a few hours foaming torrents, in places half-a-mile or more in width, carrying with them trunks of trees and an immense amount of débris.

The total capital invested is 249,907,796 dol., say, at a par value of 5 dol. 4 c. to the pound sterling (50,000,000*l*.). The working of 13 systems showed a profit, while seven systems resulted in a loss, as will be seen on reference to Table A.

This loss was made good to the shareholders of the guaranteed lines by the National Government, which had to disburse a sum of 2,731,309 (gold) dol. (say, 546,262l.). (See Table C.) The total (1006)

responsibility in respect to railway guarantees in the event of none of the lines being able to effect a payment towards reimbursement of outlay on guarantee is given as 3,342,090 dol.

(say, 684,400l.).

The loss on the Buenos Ayres and Pacific Railway is attributable to floods, which submerged the line for many kilometres, and stopped all through traffic for months. The level of the earthworks has since been raised. The loss on the Great West Argentine Railway is due to an unremunerative tariff imposed by Government.

Two of the earliest constructed railways, viz, the Great Southern of Buenos Ayres and the Central Argentine, which latter runs from Rosario to Cordova, owing to their strong position have long since waived all claim to the Government guarantee

originally granted.

The total length of lines in operation was 8,113 kiloms. (100 kiloms. being equal to 62·10 miles), and 9,713 kiloms. were in process of construction (see Table D.), which shows giant strides since my report for the year 1886, when 5,090 kiloms. were working, and 3,360 kiloms. in course of construction. Of the lines unfinished at the end of 1889, 1,932 kiloms. have been opened to public service up to the present date (October, 1890), viz.:—

#### BRANCHES OF CENTRAL ARGENTINE RAILWAY.

							Kiloms.
Cañada de Gomez te		• •	• •	••	• •	••	129
_ >> >>	Pergami	on	••	••	• •	••	141
Rosario	Peyrano	••	••	••	••	• •	78
EXTENSION AND	BRANCHES	of B.A.	and R	OSARIO	RAILW	AT.	
Sunchales to La Bar	da (Santia	go)	••	••	••		460
Galvez to Iturraspe		•	• •	••	••		104
Irigoyen to Santo T			••	••	••	• •	71
Branch to San Mart	in		••	••	••	••	6
GREAT SOUTHE	RN RAILWA	LY OF SAN	TA FÉ	AND C	ORDOVA.		
Villa Constitucion t	o Venado	Tuerto	4.	••	••	••	166
Extension of	W estern	RAILWAY	or Bu	enos A	YRES.		
Neuve de Julio to T			••	••	••	••	188
Santa F6 to the Cold			• •	••	• •	••	_
Santa Fé to Reconqu	aista .	• ••	••	••	••	••	318
Arge	NTINE NOR	тн-Еазти	n Rail	WAY.			
Monte Caseros to Cu	ıruzu Cuati	ia	••	••	••	••	65
Branches	OF CENTE.	AL RAILWA	AT OF	ENTRE	Rios.		
Nogoyá to Victoria			••	••			49
Basabilbaso to Gual			••	••			99
, Villa	guay .	• ••	••	••	••	••	62
							1,981

In addition to the above the Central Northern Railway has rails laid to Salta and Jujuy, to the extreme north of the Republic. From Villa Maria, in the province of Cordova, to Rufino, 104

kiloms. of line are nearly completed, and the following have the permanent way laid to a certain extent, viz.:—

						Kiloms.
Bahia to Villa Mercedes	••	••	••	• •	••	64
Transandine (Mendoza to Chili)	••	••		••		66
Villa Mercedes to Rioja	• •			••	••	86
North-East Argentine	• •	••	••	••		300
San Cristobal to Tucuman	••			••		17

and the branch of the Central Northern Railway, from Dean Funes to Chilecito, has the rails laid for an extension of 232 kiloms.

In addition to these lines in process of construction, concessions have been granted by Congress for a number of other lines, some with and some without a Government guarantee, as shown in Table E., but in the present financial state of the country it is very probable that many of these will be allowed to lapse, owing to the inability of obtaining the necessary funds to carry out the works. There are, however, stated to be, approximatively, 7,400 kiloms, of lines in course of survey, and on the eve of being commenced.

On all the railways steel rails are in general use, only 1,032 kiloms, being laid with iron rails, and of this total 612 kiloms, are found on the Central Northern line, which was built by the National Government in 1877, and has recently passed into the hands of an English company for the sum of 16,000,000 (gold) dollars. In like manner the railways of the province of Buenos Ayres, better known as the Western Railway of Buenos Ayres, were sold this year to a London syndicate for 41,000,000 (gold) dollars (say, 8,200,000*l*.).

The traffic returns for 1889, both for goods and passengers carried, show a marked increase over the year 1888 on all railways with the exception of that from Santa Fé to the Colonies, which passes through a grain-growing district in which crops were short.

On some lines a complete block of traffic occurred, which reached such a pitch at one time, owing to the insufficient number of locomotives and rolling stock, that in 1888 the President of the Republic, in a message to Congress, threatened to suspend the Government guarantee unless prompt measures were taken to cope with the increased demands. The report under review shows that the threat produced a good effect, as during 1889 the rolling stock on all railways in the Republic was increased by 178 locomotives, 245 passenger carriages, and 5,048 goods waggons (see Table F.); but should the harvest be good this year, there will doubtless be a renewed outcry as to insufficiency of rolling stock, as, owing to the absence of proper barns, sheds, and other storage accommodation on the farms, each grower takes his crop, be it of wool, grain, or other produce, direct to the nearest railway station, so that it may at once reach the market.

In Table B. will be found a detailed statement of the lengths of various lines of railway, together with particulars of their rolling stock.

In conclusion, I may remark that the development of railway enterprise in this Republic has afforded a remunerative outlet for the superabundant capital of the United Kingdom, and also given permanent employment to 30,393 persons, besides giving the means of livelihood to thousands of persons employed in the construction of the various lines and their extensions. Some railways pass through large tracts of sparsely-populated country, but should the tide of immigration, which has momentarily ceased, again set in, and these lands become peopled and cultivated, and so create traffic, there is no reason why Argentine railways should not continue to offer a fairly remunerative investment.

Table A.—TABLE showing Capital, Receipts, and Expenditure and other Statistics of Railways in the Argentine Republic for the Year 1889.

			nel	minic for	nepulping for the Tear 1003	1003.					
Railways.	Capital in Thousands.	Receipts in Thousands.	Expenses in Thousands.	Profits in Thousands.	Louses in Thousands.	Interest on Capital per Cent.	Passengers Carried, 1st Class, in Thousands.	Passengers Carried, 2nd Class, in Thousands.	Goods Traffic, Tons of 1,000 Kilos.	Parcels and Excess Baggage, Tons of 1,000 Kilos.	Kilometres run by Locomo- tives, Car- riages, and Waggons, in Thousands.
Buenos Ayres and Rosario.	Dollars. 41,960	Dollara. 4,992	Dollara. 2,570	Dollars. 2,422	Dollars.	Dollars. 12.02	558	700	685,185	10,918	87,462
First of Entre Rios	153	16	12	1 880	:	2.24	2 761	10	12,211	21	38
Argentine Great Western	16,984	1,291	1,937	•	949	; :	88	138	164,484	2,894	15,897
East Argentine Central Northern and	5,052	849	320	28	:	0 57	•	11	71,862	194	8,068
Branches		2,681	1,849	832	:	3.98	76	187	814,929	5,015	20,939
Central Northern Extension	0,940	382	428	:	97	:	22	89	69,512	1,676	3,357
Provincial of Buenos Ayres		7,144	4,808	2,386	:	6-95	1,037	918	2 081,792	19,976	62,299
Buenos Ayres and Pacific		898	1,268	:	299	:	6.8	97	168,198	2,669	11,770
Andine	4,866	869	989	183	:	<b>7.</b>	24	8	142,781	2,134	6,424
Central of Entre Kios		200	018	:	41	:	81	42.	81,429	80	2,079
Roon of Avec and Engineda	188,2	080	066	240	:	18:15	1,530	210	426,927 500,086	8,170	0,018 4,754
Great Southern of Buenos		200	3		:	3	21.4	•		300	
Ayres	42,840	7,237	3,950	8,337	:	4.79	1,033	948	919,069	9,014	97,209
Western of Santa F6	8,000	528	679	:	106	:	38	95	112,315	475	2,776
Santa Fé to the Colonies	10,000	902	1,027	:	125	:	54	149	188,700	1,041	5,399
North-West Argentine	4,500	250	210	07	:	060	5 <b>7</b>	<b>5</b>	108,997	84	1,128
Central of Chubut		14	20	4	:	0.44	:	:	2,288	18	62
Unumbicha to Catamarca		28	36	:	01	:	10	<b>c</b> c	1,504	:	:
Central of Cordoba	:	181	86	88	:	:	4	0	86,852	126	891
Total in thousands	249,903	35,240	24,410	12,103	1,273	:	6,891	5,158	6,642,374	73,606	801,068

N.B.—£1 sterling at par equals 5.04 dol. Argentine National dollars, gold; but during the year 1889 the premium on gold ranged from 47 to 140 per cent. in depreciated paper currency. 100 kilometres equals 62:10 Englis! miles.

Table B.—Table Belak showing Length of Lines, Number of Stations, and Rolling Stock of the Railways in the Argentine Republic in the Year 1889.

	Length	Length of Line.				Rolli	Rolling Stock.		
Rallwayn.	In Service.	In Construction.	Stations.	Number of Locomotives.	Number of Carriages.	Number of Beds.	Number of Seats.	Goods Waggons.	Staff Employed.
	Kilos	Kilos.							
Buenos Avres and Rosario	554	888	45	81	88	862	5,228	8,177	8,512
First of Entre Rice	6.	•	64	တ	<b>04</b>	:	08	17	18
Central Argentine	440	227	26	86	28	198	2,711	2,088	5,235
Argentine Great Western	513	:	77	28	9	102	888	654	1,278
East Argentine	160	:	∞	ខ្ម	77	:	720	217	255
Central Northern and Branches	884	:	38	79	87	120	2,853	1,157	1,630
Extension	226	:	12	8	32	9	1,200	297	784
Province of Buenos Avres	1,209	9 <b>6</b> 6	06	124	227	152	7,718	8,758	2,607
Buenos Ayres to Pacific	685	:	32	41	43	42	1,282	886	2,792
Andine	264	:	•	13	16	126	670	121	310
Central Entre Rios	247	816	18	6	20	:	1,084	196	478
North of Buenos Avres	<b>&amp;</b>	:	13	23	61	:	8,800	870	641
Buenus Ayres and Ensenada	106	:	24	22	77	:	2,640	734	1,426
Great Southern Railway.	1,851	:	82	114	255	817	8,183	4,498	5,281
Western of Santa Fe	210	:	15	8	21	:	1,092	252	612
Santa Fe to the Colonies	989	114	47	86	78	:	2,115	538	686
North-West Argentine	150	47	10	11	12	:	940	206	2,124
Central of Chubut	20	:	*	••	9	:	200	28	<b>8</b>
Chumbicha to Catamarca	88	:	•	••	~	:	207	22	156
Central of Cordoba	210	:	11	10	20	:	006	181	843
Total	8,110	2,596	504	758	1,186	1,969	44,225	19,496	80,898
						_	-		

N.B.-100 kilos, are equal to 62:10 English miles.

Table C.—Table showing Amount of Guarantees on Railways for which the Government of the Argentine Republic is Accountable during the Year 1889.

Rallways.	Section.	Period.	Amount of the Guarantee.	Total Amount of the Guarantee.	Total Amount of the Guarantee Dollar m/n Gold.
meific  "" festern los main s	Mercedes to Villa Mercedes Buenos Ayres to Mercedes  Villa Mercedes to San Juan  Concordis to Monte Caseros and Ceil Parana to Gualeguay  Cordobs to Tucuman	Sept. 80, 1888, to Mar. 31, 1889 April 1, 1889, to Sept. 80, 1889 Jan. 1, 1889, to Dec. 31, 1889 Nov. 1, 1889, to Dec. 31, 1889 May 1, 1889, to Oct. 31, 1889 Do Year 1888 Is six months, 1899, 180,000 dol Reb. 14, 1889, to Aug. 14, 1889, on 16,000,000 dol Max. 30, 1889, to Sept. 30, 1889, on 2,600,000 dol	26 6. d. 80,928 13 8 80,928 13 8 14,988 18 11 14,988 18 11 71,746 7 8 71,746 7 8	148,492 15 4	Dollars
Total			•	:	2,731,308

• The Government guarantee of the Central Northern Railway is 5 per cent. on 21,000,000 dol. for 15 years, but the guarantee on 2,500,000 dol. awaits completion of certain conditions as per contract.

N.B.—£1 sterling at par equals 5.04 Argentine National dollars gold.

Table D.—Showing Lengths of Railways in course of Construction in the Argentine Republic in the Year 1889.

						Kilom
Cañada de Gomez to Sastre and	Santa	Rosa	••	••		801
", ", Pergamine	· · ·	••	••	••	••	141
Pergamino to San Fernando		••	••	••	• •	212
Rosario to Peyrano	••	••	••	••		77
Sunchales to Tucuman	••	••	• •	• •	••	610
Branches to Monteros Puerto San Martin		••	• •	••	• •	188
Puerto San Martin	1	• •		• •	••	6
Irigoyen to Santa Fé	••	• •	••	••	••	77
Chilcas to Jujuy	••	••	• •	• •	••	124
Santa Rosa to Salto and Cabra (	Corral		• •	• •	••	90
Dean Funes to Chilecito	••	• •	••	••	• •	414
Villa Constitucion to La Carlota		• •	••	••	••	361
Nueve de Julio to Trenque Land	quen	••	• •	• •	• •	183
Tres Arroyos to Bahia Blanca	••	••	••	••	••	189
Tandil to Las Flores	••	••	• •	••		140
Belgrano to Las Conchas	• •	• •	••	••	••	23
Nueve de Julio to San Rafael	• •		••	• •	••	744
Bahia Blanca to Villa Mercedes	and R	io IV.	••	• •	• •	1,188
Villa Maria to Rufino	••	• •	• •	••	••	226
Villa Mercedes to La Rioja	• •	• •	• •	••	••	586
Reconquista to Formosa and Pil	comay	o	• •	••	• •	495
Nanducito to Presidencia Roca	••	••	• •	••	••	679
San Christobal to Tucuman	• •	••	••	••	••	400
Santa Fé to Reconquista	••	••	••	• •	• •	210
Rosario to San Francisco	••	••	• •	• •	• •	150
San Martin to La Rioja	••	••	••		••	150
Cordoba to Cruz del Eje	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	105
Monte Caseros to Corrientes	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	376
Branches of Central Entre Rice t	\ \ Vic	toria,	Villege	1 <b>2</b> y	. l	830
Branches of Central Entre Rios t	ັໄGա	alegua	y, Gual	eguayo	hu∫	
Transandine to Chili	••	••	••	••	••	195
Monte Caseros to Posadas	••	••	••	••	••	484
					•	
Total	••	••	• •	• •	• •	9.844

N.B.-100 kiloms are equal to 62.10 English miles.

Table E.—Concressions for Railways in the Argentine Republic sanctioned in the Year 1889.

Concessionaire.	From—	То—	Gauge	Price per Kilometre.	Guaranice per Cent.	Duration of Guarantee.
Juan Pelleachi and Co	Rufino	Puerto de Naposta	Metres.	Gold Dollars.	10	Yeara,
O. Bemberg and Co.				28,600	10	8
J. P. Wileman and Co.	Rosario, Santa Fé.	Lincoln, Pigue, and	: 2	:	:	:
Dence Coloniarden Nectoral	Ren Vincente	G. Acha				
Carlos Fernandez and Co.		Mercedes, Concordis	1,485	22,000	. io	: <b>8</b>
Brundger, Fair, and Co	Buenos Ayres		Narrow	. :	:	:
D. Nougier and Co	Capilla del Señor	Giles	1,676	:	:	:
Lockwood and Co., Drabble	Villa Constitucion	Acevedo	:		:	:
A. E. Carranza and Co	Tinogasta	Fronters de Chile	Narrow	80,000	<b>1</b> 0	80
Fed. L. Green and Co.	San Rafael	Norduin	1,676	28,000	•	20
Compañia Nacional de Trasportes	Victoria (F.C.N.).	-	2	:	:	:
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P.S.—Since the foregoing was written, I have to state that by decree of the Government, dated 25th instant, the following concessions, named therein, are declared void, owing to non-

fulfilment of the stipulated conditions, viz:-

Buenos Ayres to Riachuelo; Villa Maria to Reconquista; Cachari to Trenque Languen; Zarate to Toay; Villa Mercedes to Rosario; Tigre to San Roque; Nuñez to Riachuelo; Villaguay to Colon; San Nicolas to Rufino; Catamarca to Tucuman.

The following concessions are also declared void, viz: River Parana to Oran and Tartagal: Ituzaingo to Posadas

and the Metropolitan.

Another decree of same date requires the department of engineers to report at once on the railways in course of construction, and state whether the terms of the contracts are being carried out; and a third decree declares that those concessions in which a time was stipulated for the signing of the contracts will fall to the ground at the end of two months, unless the contracts are presented and signed.

RONALD BRIDGETT.

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### FOREIGN OFFICE.

1891.

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No. 204.

# REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

# ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

# REPORT ON IMMIGRATION IN THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Miscellaneous Series No. 172.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, JUNE, 1891.

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1891.

[C. (206-24.]

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### No. 204.

Reference to previous Report, Miscellaneous Series No. 172.

### ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

### BUENOS AYRES.

Mr. Pakenham to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Buenos Ayres, May 13, 1891.

I HAVE the honour to enclose a Report by Mr. Arthur Herbert on the Immigration to this country during the past few

I venture to hope that, in view of the present crisis, this Report may prove of some interest, and I would desire to point out to your Lordship the heavy falling off in immigration, more especially during the past three months.

Should this Report be published, I think that any intending Colonist might, with advantage, bear in mind Mr. Herbert's remarks of the difficulties as to language, &c., he will have to contend against before making his final decision to leave his home.

> I have, &c. (Signed) F. PAKENHAM.

### Mr. A. Herbert to Mr. Pukenham.

Buenos Ayres, May 12, 1891.

I HAVE the honour to submit to you the following statistics as to immigration into the Argentine during the past year,

which I trust may prove of some interest.

The number of ocean-going steamers entering the port of Buenos Ayres in 1890 amounted to 733, the number in 1889 being 757. Of these each year about two-thirds were under the British flag.

The number of passengers and immigrants entering the port Immigration in 1889 was 262,887, and 37,210 sailed from the port, making a in 1889.

net gain to the Republic of 225,677 persons.

In 1890 the number of passengers and immigrants entering Immigration in 1890. (1149)



was 138,407 and 82,984 sailed, leaving a net gain of 55,426

The falling-off, therefore, in the number of immigrants and passengers remaining in the country in 1890 as compared with 1889 is 170,251.

Subsidiand passages.

The number of subsidised passages in 1889 was 96,447, or about 46 per cent. of the total immigration of that year, and the number given in 1890 was 20,121, of which the following table will show the nationality:

	Nation	nality.			January 1 to November 30.	December.	Grand Total
French	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			•	12,169		
Spanish		••	••	•••	4,017		
Italian	• •	• •		••	1,334	ğ	
German				• •	450	hand	
Belgian			• •		454	\$	
Dutch			• •		202		1
Swiss		••		••	139	ğ	
Russian	••			•••	88	No details	.,
Austrian	• •				103	7	
Danish	• •			••	24	£	
Argentine		••	• •	••	9 j	. ,	
English	••	••	••	•• !	10		
Total			••	• •	18.996	1,125	20,121

Argentine emigration offices abroad suppressed.

By a law passed July 24, 1890, the Argentine emigration and propaganda offices were abolished, consequently no more assisted passages will be given, but it has been calculated that each assisted immigrant who remained in the Republic cost the country from about 15l. to 17l. per head.

Net returns since 1885.

The following table shows at a glance the net returns of immigration for the past six years:-

Yea	r.	İ	Immigration.	Emigration.	Net Immigration
1885			108,722	14,585	94,183
1886	••	•••	93,116	13,907	79,209
1887			120,842	13,630	107,221
1888			155,032	16,842	138,799
1889	••		260,909	40,649	220,260
1890	• •		138.407	88,503	54,904

Nationalities,

The details of immigration for 1890, classified as to nationpercentage of ality, are only to hand up to November 30, and they give the following results per cent. of the total immigration up to that date: Italian, 49.97 per cent.; French, 22.44 per cent.; Spanish, 17.24 per cent.; Austrian, 2.45 per cent.; German, 1.62 per cent.; British, 1.45 per cent.; and the following table will give

the numbers (up to November 30) of those who entered and left the country, showing the number who remained:-

Nations	lity.	ł	Entered.	Left.	Difference
Italian	•••		35,446	44,658	- 9,212
French	• •		15,917	4,520	+ 11,897
Spanish		]	12,234	6,890	+ 5,840
Austrian	••		1,740	308	+ 1,431
German	••		1,151	575	+ 576
English	••		1,033	685	+ 848
Swiss	••		878	70	+ 788

It may be interesting here to note the amount of immigration which has taken place during 1885-89 to the Argentine, the United States, and to Brazil, but so far as the former is concerned, for a number of years to come there is every reason to expect that the average will not be maintained.

	Year	r.	United States.	Brazil.	Argentine
1885			 360,252	30,135	108,722
1886		••	 416,075	25,741	98,116
1887	••	••	 538,243	54,990	120,842
1888			 546,060	131,745	156,632
1889	••	••	 452,122	65,161	260,909
	Tot	al	 2,312,752	307,772	739,271

The depreciation and purchasing power of the paper dollar Causes of fall (now worth about 14d.), the dearness of board and lodging, added in immito the fact that retrenchment is attempted in all branches of gration in 1891. business since the "boom" here has burst, and that the rise in wages has only corresponded by about 25 per cent. to the rise in the price of gold, has caused immigration this year to keep on Immigration falling steadily, so that in April the emigration exceeded the in 1891. immigration by 6,639 persons.

For the first four months of this year the following are the returns:-

Month.			Immigration.	Emigration.	
January February March	••	••	8,712 6,777 5,697 5,273	7,031 8,290 8,779 11,912	
Total	••		26,459	36,030	

The first three months of this year as compared with the

Decrease of immigration in 1891.

immigration for the first three months of 1890 give 27,698 less for this year, and the immigration for the same period in 1890 was 11,168 less than in 1889, so that, as compared with the same period in 1889, there is in the first quarter of this year a fallingoff of 38,866 immigrants.

Notwithstanding this very considerable decrease the supply of labour exceeds the demand, owing to the general lack of business activity and of retrenchment, and to the failure and consequent break-up of the British colony at Napostá, and of a Dutch colony, and more especially owing to the closing of the Madero port works, whereby about 7,000 men are thrown out of

employment.

Repatriation of distressed French subjects.

In a Reuter's telegram a few days back it is reported that the French Government have granted 1,000,000 fr. to repatriate distressed French subjects in this country, and it is very much to be hoped that the flow hither of British immigration may cease for the present. Under any circumstances the British colonist of the labouring class has not been a great success here, probably chiefly owing to the difficulty he has in acquiring the language, and he is consequently at a great disadvantage when competing with the Italian labourer who, owing to the similarity of language, climate, and habits of the country, feels at home at once on landing when he finds himself surrounded by so large a number of his countrymen.

Wages.

The present wages of an ordinary labourer in town is about 2.00 dol. paper a day, inclusive (2s. 4d.), and in camp about 35 dol. a month (2l. 1s.), with food.

Domestic servants run from about 35 dol. (21. 1s.) to 60 dol. (3l. 10s.) a month, with food, which, taking other things into consideration, and the cost of any imported article, either of luxury or of necessity, hardly represents to them more than they could earn in Europe.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ARTHUR HERBERT.

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### FOREIGN OFFICE.

1891.

# MISCELLANEOUS SERIES.

No. 193.

# REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

# AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT ON THE

PLUM TRADE IN BOSNIA FOR THE YEAR 1890.

REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Miscellaneous Series No. 111.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, FEBRUARY, 1891.

LONDON:
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### No. 193.

Reference to previous Report, Miscellaneous Series No. 111.

### AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

### SERAJEVO.

Consul Freeman to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Serajevo, February 2, 1891.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a Report on the Plum Trade in Bosnia for the year 1890.

I have, &c. (Signed) EDW. B. FREEMAN.

Report on the Plum Trade in Bosnia for the Year 1890.

In the month of April, when the plum-trees were laden with blossom, the weather was so favourable and the fruit set so well that a very abundant crop was anticipated. These hopes, however, were soon dissipated, for when the plums had attained the size of peas they began to fall, each one pierced by an insect, and continued to fall throughout the summer. In many districts also the trees were attacked by caterpillars, which completely stripped them of their leaves to the great detriment of the fruit. The trees in higher localities appear to have given better crops than those in the lowlands, whence comes the bulk of the crop. The favourable weather, however, and frequent rains in early summer rapidly developed the fruit that remained on the trees, and then the great heat in the months of July and August caused it to ripen early and to be of excellent quality.

It is estimated that not more than 150,000 metric quintals (14,763 tons) of the dried fruit were produced last season. In good seasons nearly three times that quantity appears on the market. Up to the end of December about 130,000 metric quintals (12,795 tons) had been exported. The remainder will be exported in the spring, when the River Save is again open to

The producers obtained very remunerative prices for the fruit last year; but, on the other hand, it is said that for the merchants

it was not on the whole a profitable season, although owing to the great fluctuations in prices there was a wide field for speculation. The failure of water-transport in the autumn somewhat hampered the trade. The Save was so low that for a time steam navigation ceased altogether, and exporters could not avail themselves of the special low rates for plums by the steamers of the Bosnian Govern-

ment which ply on the Drina and the Save.

Towards the end of August the first lots of dried plums were brought to market, and exportation began in the beginning of September. Owing to a strong demand prices were very good at first, but they soon began to fall, and reached their lowest point on September 26. The causes of this fall were the arrival on the market of large supplies, favourable reports regarding the crop in France, no demand from Germany, and above all the publication of the M'Kinley Bill, as it was naturally thought that with high prices and double duty there would be no demand from the United States of America, which in fact up to the end of December was the case. Prices, however, soon began to rise again, as speculators, who had effected sales in advance, found difficulty owing to the short crop in meeting their engagements.

The following table shows the fluctuation in prices throughout the season at Broka, on the Save, the chief seat of the plum trade. The prices are given in Austrian florins (about 11 fl. 40 kr. to 1\(l\). sterling) per 100 okes (278 lbs.), including sacks, free on

board :-

Date.	Num	ber of Plums	per 🕯 Kilo. (1·1	.0 lb.).
	70 to 75.	80 to 85.	95 to 100.	100 to 115.
1890.	Fl. kr.	Fl. kr.	Fl. kr.	Fl. kr.
September, 1		82 00	28 00	26 00
<b>"</b> ,, 10		81 00	27 00	<b>245</b> 50
" 20		29 50	27 00	26 00
" 26	27 50	26 50	25 00	24 50
,, 80	28 25	27 25	<b>26 2</b> 5	25 50
October 11	80 50	29 75	<b>29</b> 60	28 50
<b>,, 2</b> 0	88 50	82 50	81 00	80 00
" 27	38 00	37 00	86 00	35 00
November 10	35 50	34 00	88 25	<b>32</b> 50
" 28	86 50	85 <b>-25</b>	84 75	<b>84</b> 00
December 1	85 00	84 00	88 00	••
" 10	•• •	88 25	81 50	••
" 20	36 00	85 00	<b>84</b> 00	••
<b>"</b> 31	85 50	84 00	88 00	

The quality of the dried fruit, both as regards size and flavour, was, as I have already stated, excellent, and could even bear comparison with that of French fruit. The numerous prizes awarded at the Vienna Agricultural Exhibition last summer to Bosnain plums attests their excellence.

In my report on the plum crop for the year 1888, I stated that the Government of Bosnia and the Herzegovina was

endeavouring to introduce drying ovens of a better description than those in use in the country. These French drying ovens, as they are here called, have given most satisfactory results. The plums dried therein remain fleshier and, consequently, heavier. In the ordinary native ovens 350 to 400 okes of fresh plums, whereas in the French ovens only 300 to 340, are required to furnish 100 okes of the dried fruit; and if it takes, for instance, 95 to 100 plums dried in the former ovens to make half a kilogramme in weight, it only takes 80 to 85 of those dried in the latter, and as the quality and price are regulated by the number of plums to the half kilogramme (1.10 lb.), they realise, in consequence, 2 fl. to 3 fl. more per 100 okes (278 lbs.).; also less labour, and 30 to 40 per cent. less fuel is required for the French ovens. As, however, their prime cost is much greater than that of the native ovens and as the drying process occupies from 86 to 40 hours instead of only 20 to 24, nearly double the number of ovens would be required; and I fear therefore that, in spite of their evident advantages, it will be a long time before they come into general use in this province.

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### BELGIUM.

#### ANTWERP.

Consul-General Perry to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Antwerp, December 10, 1890.

HEREWITH I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship a Report by Mr. Vice-Consul Menzies on the Coal Industry of the Province of Liége during 1889; and as this is the first Report of the kind furnished by a British Consular Officer I have every reason to hope that it will be found interesting.

I have, &c.
(Signed) G. DE COURCY PERRY.

Report on the Coal Industry in the Province of Liége during the Year 1889.

The year 1889 was one of the most prosperous for the coal mining industry of Belgium that has been experieuced for a long time. The improvement, which began in 1887, was steadily continued during the following year; and the coal industry, unaffected by any extraneous influences, re-entered upon a period of calm prosperity, wherein the prices were regulated by the natural proportions of supply and demand, without either preponderating unduly over the other.

This state of equilibrium was well maintained during nearly the whole of last year, and, under the influence of an increasing demand, the prices of coal steadily went up at a moderately increasing rate; when, almost without warning, during the last months of the year, the market became suddenly animated, and the prices increased in a remarkable manner. Since then the demand has remained firm, and the prices consequently have been well maintained, and, without doubt, the present year will be a remarkably prosperous one for the coal mining industry in Belgium.

The production (gross output) of coal mines in the province of Gross output. Liége for the year 1889 amounted to a total of 4,955,620 tons, an

increase of 158,452 tons, or 3.3 per cent. over that of 1888.

(1012)

This increase is much less important than that for the two previous years which amounted to 247,859 tons in 1888, and to 449,966 tons in 1887.

Coal in stock.

The stocks of coal which, on December 31, 1887, amounted to 63,947 tons, were reduced at the end of 1888 to 19,201 tons, showing a decrease of 44,746 tons.

On the other hand, the consumption of coal in the mines during 1889 amounted to 355,926 tons, or an increase of 12,275 tons over

that of 1888.

Total sales.

It results from these figures that the sales in 1889 amounted to 4,644,440 tons, an increase of 163,181 tons over those of the

Output according to quality.

Subdivided according to quality the total output, compared with that of 1888, was as follows:-

	1888.	1889.	Increase.
Non-bituminous coal Semi-bituminous coal Bituminous coal	 Tons. 540,109 1,966,205 2,290,854	Tons. 559,737 2,056,210 2,389,673	19,628 or 3.6 per cent. 90,005 ,, 4.6 ,, 48,819 ,, 2.1 ,,

It will be seen from the above table that, as in previous years, the bituminous coal shows the lowest rate of increase in proportion to the output.

Total value.

The total value of the coal extracted amounted to 48,699,110 fr., an increase of 7,056,760 fr. over that of the production of 1888, and the average price per ton of the various qualities for the two years in question was as follows:-

Price per ton at pit's mouth.

			Value	per ton.		Incr	
		188	38.	188	39.	Incr	casc.
Non-bituminous coal . Semi-bituminous coal . Bituminous coal .		Fr. 8 8 8	c. 03 78 80	Fr. 8 9 10	c. 85 64 28	Fr. 0 0 1	c. 82 91 48
Averages .	•	8	68	9	83	1	15

As will be observed the bituminous coal profited most from the increase in prices.

It must be borne in mind that the average price per ton, as given above, is not precisely the actual average selling price, because in the calculation is included the coal consumed in the mines, which is often of inferior quality, and upon which the consumer fixes his own price.

Cost of trans-

The cost of transport by rail to Belgian ports is as follows: port to Belgian ports. Liége to Antwerp (Bassins), 4 fr. 68 c. per ton; Liége to Selzaete, 5 fr. 5 c. per ton. In calculating the export price at above ports a slight addition must be made for loading, unloading, and shipment.

The total working expenses of the coal mines in the Liége Working district amounted in 1889 to 41,467,650 fr., divided into:—wages, expenses. 25,864,160 fr.; other expenses, 15,603,490 fr. Compared with 1888, the amount of wages shows an increase of 2,620,600 fr., and the other expenses an increase of 1,042,210 fr.

Thus the average cost price per ton amounted to:-

Average cost price.

•					Fr.	c.
Cost of extraction .	• •		••	••	5	22
Other expenses	••	••	•• `	••	8	15
Total per ton	• •		• •	••	8	87

The following table shows the total number of workpeople Total number employed in the Liége coal mines in 1889, subdivided in respect of workpeople. to their age and sex:—

#### UNDERGROUND WORKERS.

Men Women Boys (under Girls "	15 year	of ag	;e)	••	••	••	17,887 194 2,193 12	20,286
		Ав	OVEGBO	UND W	OBKERS	<b>3</b> .		
Men Women Boys (under	 15 year	 s of a	 <b>r</b> e)	••	••	••	8,816 1,123 899	
Girls ,,	,, Total	,,	••	••	••	••	435	5,778 26,009

The total number of workpeople, as shown by the foregoing output per table, having been 26,009, the output per head amounted to 109.5 head. tons, as against 196 tons per head in 1888, and this decrease is principally due to the falling-off in activity of the heavers, who only produced 245 tons per head, as against 255 tons in 1888. This result might have been foreseen, and putting aside the slight influence caused by the employment of a proportionally larger number of workmen on extra work, as it is the outcome (1.) of the strikes (happily of short duration) that took place in many of the coal mines at the close of the year; (2.) of the epidemic of influenza that broke out in December; and (3.) of the well established fact that the higher the workman's wages are the less he works.

This reduction of the activity of the workman has naturally Average decreased his annual earnings, which amounted, on the average, to yearly earnings of workforth, or only 46 fr., less than 5 per cent., in excess of that men per head of the preceding year. Had he turned out the same quantity of work as in 1888 his average earnings for the year would have amounted, at the lowest computation, to 1,014 fr.

The total net profits of the coal mines in the Liege district in Total yearly 1889, after deducting all extra expenses, amounted to the sum of net profits.

7,231,460 fr., exceeding by 3,393,950 fr., or more than 88 per cent., the net profits of the previous year; and should nothing occur to interrupt the present unusual prosperity of the coal mining industry the result of the workings during the present year will be still more favourable than that of 1889.

Coke.

Manufacture of Coke for Smelting Purposes.—The following table shows the state of the coke manufacturing industry during 1889:—

Ovens.	Number of ovens— Working Not working			••	••	1,583 405
	Tota	ı	••		••	1,988
Workmen.	Number of workmen					677
Coal.	Consumption of coal	•••	•	•	•••	887,795 ton
Coke.	Production of coke		••	••	• •	599,489 ,,
Vulne	Average value of coke	er ton		••		1,680 fr.

Increase of working ovens. Increase of production. The number of ovens working, which already in 1888 was 51 in advance of the previous year, was further increased by 107 in 1889; but the fact that the increase of production was only 28,086 tons, or less than that of the previous year, shows that most of the extra ovens began working only in the second six months of the year.

Spontaneous combustion.

Spontaneous Combustion.—I can find no record of any having taken place, and this immunity is attributable to:—

- 1. The non-bituminous nature of the coal.
- 2. To the small quantities stacked.
- 3. To the stacking being done in the open air.
- I append some general statistics:—

Number of		Num	BER O	Prrs.			
pits.	Pits (working)	••	• •	••		••	72
•	,, (in reserve)	• •			••	••	19
	" being sunk	٠.	••	••	••	••	8
		Total		••	••	••	94
Horses.			Нова	<b>8</b> 8.			
1101808	Underground	••	• •	••	••	••	600
•	Aboveground	••	••	• •	••	••	219
		Total		••	••	••	819
TI		]	Engin	es.			

Engines.

			Number.	Horsepower.
Winding engines-		l		
Working			104	12,103
In reserve			11	442
In construction			2	108
Pumping engines			77	12,054
Ventilating engine	8		84	1,991
Engines for sundry		oses	277	8,517

### ANTWERP.

# Comparison between 1888-89:-

		1888.	1889.	Increase 1889.	
Number of workpeople—					•
Underground Aboveground	••	18,816 5,694	20,286 5,778	1,420 79	Workpeople.
Total	••	24,510	26,009	1,499	•
Total wages earned	France	23,248,560	25,864,160	2,620,600	Wages.
Mean annual wage	<b>)</b> )	948	994	46	_
Total gross output Average output per work-	Tons	4,797,168	4,955,620	158,452	Oatput.
ing pit	29	67,566	68,82 <b>8</b>	1,262	
Average output per workman-	"				
Underground	,,	255	245		
Aboveground	,,	842	858	16	
Both classes	,,	196	191	۱	
Total value	Francs	41,642,850	48,699,110	7,056,760	
Average selling price per	<u> </u>				Selling price.
ton	,,	8.68	9.83	1.15	Cost of
Average cost price per ton	"	7.88	8.37	0.49	production.
Ordinary working expenses	, ,,	35,366,840	88,710,980	8,844,090	Expenses
Extra expenses	"	2,438,000	2,756,720	818,720	-
Total expenses	,,,	87,804,840	41,467,650	8,662,810	-

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#### BELGIUM.

#### BRUSSELS.

Lord Vivian to he Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Brussels, March 28,\* 1891.

I HAVE the honour to enclose Mr. Gosselin's Report on the Belgian "Conseils des Prud'hommes," and on the Councils of Industry and Labour, which he has drawn up in accordance with the instructions contained in your Lordship's Despatch, of

January 3, 1890.

This Report, to which Mr. Gosselin has devoted great pains, has been unavoidably delayed by his duties on the Staff of the Slave Trade Conference, and subsequently on the Technical Commission for the Settlement of the Customs Tariff in the Congo Basin, which fully occupied his time during the whole of last year; but the delay has allowed of the Report on the practical working of the Councils of Industry and Labour being brought up to the latest date.

I am, &c. (Signed) VIVIAN.

Report on the Belgian Councils of Prud'hommes and of the Councils of Industry and Labour.

#### PART I.—COUNCILS OF PRUD'HOMMES.

The Belgian Councils of Prud'hommes—district boards for the settlement of disputes arising between employers and employed—were originally created here by the French law Origin of of March 18, 1806. This measure, subsequently modified on institutions several occasions, was replaced by the organic law of February 7, 1859, which reorganised and remodelled the whole institution.

The law of 1859, though it affected an improvement on the previous state of things, had for some time past failed to give satisfaction to either masters or workmen, both sides accusing the tribunals of partiality and injustice, and the whole organisation of these councils was examined by the Labour Commission

<sup>\*</sup> It will be seen on reference to p. 19, that a P.S. has since been added by the author, bringing the latest information down to April 21.—Ep.

(1071)

appointed in 1886 to suggest means for improving the status of the working classes, and formed the subject of an interesting report, drawn up by M. Sabatier.\*

Radical fault established by the law of 1859.

The Commission called special attention to the system whereby in the system the electors of the councils were nominated: the communal of election, as administrations drew up, each for their respective districts, provisional lists of electors, chosen by them from amongst the persons qualified to vote, which were subsequently revised and confirmed by the permanent committees of each province. In view of the general tendency towards an extension of all rights of suffrage, this discretionary power, vested in the administrative authorities, appeared an anachronism, and the report stated that the workmen, when asked why they did not insist on being put on the electoral lists, replied that they simply did not dare to claim their rights. The selection of the electors lay, in fact, entirely with the communal and provincial authorities, except in the case of workmen entitled to demand as an absolute right the inscription of their names on the lists on one of the three following grounds (provided always that they were Belgian subjects by birth or naturalisation, over 25 years of age, domiciled within the jurisdiction of the council, actually following their calling therein for at least four years, and were able to read and write):—(1) That they had received the special distinction instituted in 1847 for talent and morality; (2) that they had invested at least 100 fr. in either a savings bank or pension fund; (3) that they had obtained through a Royal decree a reward for an act of bravery and self-devotion.

> There can be no doubt that the Legislature intended that, either as masters or workmen, only men of note should be electors. The explanatory statement annexed to the Bill laid before Parliament expressly said that on limit should be imposed in principle on the choice of the local authorities, except certain general conditions as to age, domicile, and education: all employers and employed alike could be entered on the lists, but the local authority "will select from both categories a certain number of individuals who, by their conduct, their love of order, and intelligence will be able to give the best guarantees." framers of the law of 1859 entrusted the administrative authorities with the delicate task of appointing the electorate, and, wishing to avoid the French system of election by universal suffrage, they ran into the opposite extreme, and authorised the provincial administrations to exercise an absolute right of revising, curtailing, or increasing the lists of electors forwarded to them by the communal authorities.

Moreover, it appeared from the investigations of the Labour Commission that the communal authorities, before drawing up the electoral lists, applied, as a rule, to the police, who, in their turn, derived their information from the employers of labour. Practically, therefore, with the exception of the workmen, who had an absolute right, as explained above, to be entered on the

<sup>\*</sup> See Commission du Travail. Rapports. Vol. III., pp. 427-440.

lists, the masters were virtually able to nominate those of their staff whom they considered worthy to represent their fellow workmen.

In view of this initial fault in the selection of the electoral body, it can hardly be a matter of surprise that the workpeople took little or no interest in an institution intended primarily for their advantage, and that the Prud'hommes organisation had gradually lost all touch with the working classes.

As illustrating the apathy of the electors, the following returns Little interest

cited in M. Sabatier's report are instructive:-

In 1881, at Dour, out of 735 electors only 116 voted. In electors in elections held 1881, at Pâturages, out of 578 electors only 75 voted. In 1884, under the at Dour, out of 842 electors only 119 voted. In 1884, at 1859 law. Pâturages, out of 658 electors only 49 voted.

In 1885 there were at Dour 49 masters electors, and 924 workmen electors; at Pâturages, 43 masters electors, and 891

workmen electors.

On the other hand, the employers of labour expressed to the Dissatisfac-Commission much dissatisfaction with the clause in the 1859 Act, tion of whereby judgment could be pronounced against a master by a masters with Prud'hommes court in which the working man's representatives law of 1859. Prud'hommes court, in which the working men's representatives were in a majority. This stipulation went far to justify the masters' anxiety as to the impartiality of courts thus composed.

Another abuse to which the Labour Commission called special Of Prud' attention was the presence in several of the councils of inn-hommes not keepers, suspected by the very fact of their calling of abusing entitled

their position to their own advantage.

The Prud'homme, elected as the representative of some trade office. or industry, who, after his election, should give up his calling and start an inn, or undertake any other duty outside the ken of the council, should ipso facto lose his mandate, and he replaced by a new member exercising one of the callings within the group of industries which his predecessor had been elected to represent. It is true that ex-masters and ex-workmen were not excluded by the law of 1859 from sitting in the councils, but this provision aimed at including those who, retired from all actual work, had sufficient leisure and impartiality still to serve as Prud'hommes. It was not intended thereby to sanction the presence in the councils of members who had, subsequently to their election, adopted a new trade-such, for instance, as innkeeping-entirely outside the categories from which the Prud'hommes ought to be recruited.

To resume the recommendations of the Labour Commission, Summary of

1. That it should be declared legal to establish councils of in Act of 1859

o continue in

modification by the Labour

\* Art. 38 runs as follows:—"Should the members present on the day of Commission. audience not be capable of fulfilling the conditions required for forming a court, according to Art. 36"—(i.e., an equal number of masters and working men Prud'hommes)—"the matter shall be deferred to a subsequent sitting.

"If at this second sitting the same circumstances should again arise, the matter in question may all the same be tried, whatever may be the composition of he

court, provided that at least four Prud'hommes are present.

(1071)

Prud'hommes by Royal decree, instead of requiring a specia law in each case.

2. That the restricted electorate of 1859 should be abolished, and that all electors, masters and workmen alike, who fulfil the legal conditions, should be necessarily enrolled on the electoral lists, and that every individual unduly enrolled, or omitted from, or struck off such lists, should have a right of appeal.

3. That membership of a recognised mutual assurance society should qualify for the electorate, provided the other general

conditions were fulfilled.

4. That the presidents and vice-presidents should be selected from among the members of the councils, outsiders being no

longer eligible for these posts.

- 5. That instead of having one council for each district, it would be preferable to sub-divide the existing councils, and institute for each important trade its own special council, the secondary trades being grouped together under a separate council, enabling by this means a reduction to be made in the present maximum number of 16 members; or, as an alternative course, that the numbers of each council should be largely increased, and the council divided into separate sections, each section dealing only with similar or cognate trades. By the adoption of either of these alternatives, disputes affecting the great national industries, such as gla-s-blowing, metallurgy, coal and quarry mines, would be settled by Prud'hommes fully acquainted with the details of the respective industries, while the lesser industries would be no worse off than they are under the existing system, forming a miscellaneous group to be dealt with by "The Conseil des industries diverses."
- 6. That as far as regards the coal-mining industry in the Borinage district, where the customs and methods of work differ in the various localities, the councils should be so organised as to allow the communes, in which identic systems prevail, to be

grouped together.

7. That all matters relating to pensions and assistance give n by friendly and provident societies, should be deemed within the competence of the councils of Prud'hommes. By the Act of 1859, the councils could only take cognisance of such matters with the previous consent of both parties. The Labour Commission pointed out that, generally speaking, there was no appeal open to the working classes from the decisions of the councils and general assemblies of these societies; and they therefore recommended that the councils of Prud'hommes should be authorised to deal in the first instance with such disputes, without interfering with the ultimate jurisdiction of the civil tribunals, to which an appeal would lie.

8. That only one master delegate from any one firm should sit as a Prud'homme.

9. That foremen ("contremaîtres or porions") should no longer be deemed to be workmen; or that at least they should not be eligible as workmen Prud'hommes, when their employers were also members of the council.

10. That the electors should have 15 days—instead of "at least eight days"—written notice of the date of the election; that these notices should be sent direct to their homes, and not entrusted, as occasionally happened, to the masters for distribution; that all possible publicity should be given to the bills advertising the elections; and that the placarding of the bills convoking the electors should be obligatory on the communal administrations.

11. That the faculty of pronouncing judgment, no matter what might be the composition of the council, should be done away with, and that the Prud'hommes, whose absence prevented the action of the council, should be punishable as guilty of causing

a denial of justice (" déni de justice").

12. That the procedure should be simplified, and the expenditure, incurred in respect of the execution of the judgments pronounced by the councils, reduced, so as to render the proceedings as nearly gratituous as possible for masters and workmen alike. It was pointed out that the workmen had often not the means at their disposal to enforce the sentences pronounced in their favour, and laid the blame on the councils of Prud'hommes. In vain was it explained that, the sentence once pronounced, the action of the council ceased, and the enforcement of the sentence appertained to the civil tribunals; the men attributed their difficulties to the council—in league, as they thought, with the employers, and these inevitable delays were cited as but another instance of the truth of the cry, "There is no justice for the working man."

The following tabular statement of the work of the council of Twenty years' Prud'hommes of the canton of Molenbeek St. Jean, during 20 work done by years (1867.—1886), shows that out of 4,194 cases brought the Molenberg St. Jean before the council, no less than 3,756 were settled off-hand by Council of voluntary agreement, and that of the remaining 431 cases on Prud'which the court pronounced judgment, 232 were given in hommes. favour of the workmen, and 152 in favour of the masters. (To this latter total should, however, be added 47 exceptional cases arising out of a leather-dresser's strike in 1870, the council being obliged to sentence the men either to finish their contract

work, or to pay damages to their employers.)



DIFFERENCES between the Inhabitants of Molenbeek St. Jean exclusively.

Years.	Cases Submitted.	Cases Cases Pronounced in Favour of Settled.		Amicably	Observations.
			Workmen	Masters.	
1867	79	59	9	11	
1868	128	100	18	10	1
1869	196	170	18	18	1
1870	284	218	12	6 + 47	1 incomplete verdict
1871	302	283	17	2	-
1872	256	284	10	12	Į.
1878	276	258	11	7	1
1874	282	248	24	15	•
1875	295	268	17	10	1
1876	247	232	10	5	
1877	216	195	12	9	}
1878	202	186	8	5	8 incomplete verdicts.
1879	175	155	16	4	i
1880	138	127	8	<b>3</b> 5	1
1881	178	160	8		
1882	189	176	9	4	
1883	195	178	5	12	
1884	163	154	6	3 .	
1885	212	192	10	8	2 cases withdrawn
1886 to Sept. 30	186	168	9	8	1 incomplete verdict
Total	4,194	3,756	232	152 + 47	7

Six months' work done by Council of Prud'hommes Mar.-Sept., 1886.

To cite another instance from the centre of the coal-mining. districts: The council of Prud'hommes of Charleroi was only the Charleroi created in 1886; during the first six months of its existence 1,403 differences were brought before it; of this total, 1,145 cases. of small importance were settled out of court by the intervention of the clerk alone, 222 cases were settled amicably by the Board of Conciliation, 10 cases were settled amicably by the general council, and 26 were judged by the general council; making a total of 1,403 cases.

Summary of the 28 councils of Prud'hommes, 1862-85.

The Labour Commission further published a summary of the work done by work done by all the 23 councils of Prud'hommes existing in Belgium during the period 1862-85. Of the total number of 48,708 disputes submitted during these 24 years, no less than 35,024 (72 per cent.) were settled off-hand by voluntary agreement. It should, however, be observed that if the returns of the last six of these years (1880-85) are taken, this Bill amending satisfactory proportion is somewhat reduced, the cases amicably the law on the settled amounting only to 65 per cent.

councils of Prud'hommes presented by the Government in December, 1887.

The Government lost little time in taking into consideration the recommendations of the Labour Commission, and in December, 1887, the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works laid a Bill before the Chamber, embodying most of the views set forth in M. Sabatier's report.

The Government Bill proposed (I.) to enlarge the electorate by Aims of the abolishing the discretionary power exercised by the communal Government administrations in drawing up the electoral lists, by giving to all Bill. who fulfilled the necessary conditions the absolute right to be I. An inscribed as electors, and by doing away with the reading and electorate. writing test exacted from electors by the law of 1859.

II. It was further proposed, in order to equalise the repre- II. Position sentation in the councils of masters and workmen, to rank the of foremen foremen amongst the former when candidates for election, and ("contreamongst the latter when merely voting. The foremen form mattres"). admittedly an intermediate class between the employers and the workmen; they are bound to watch over their masters' interests in all that concerns the relations of the former with the latter. While the ordinary workmen are paid by the day or by piecework, the foremen generally receive a fixed salary, and often an additional percentage on the economies realised by them on the men's wages. Belonging originally to the workmen's class, their interests are certainly not identic with those of the men from whom they have sprung; and both as electors, and as candidates for election, they are looked upon with suspicion by the majority of the workmen. The Government, therefore, proposed that the foremen, if elected by the masters as Prud'hommes, should really represent the latter in the councils, as they always have done in their daily relations with the workpeople, with the reserve that the foremen could in no case form more than one-fourth of the whole council: as electors, they would still be ranked as workmen, without, however, being able to represent the men in the council

III. With the same object in view, the clause regulating the III. Nominanomination of the presidents and vice-presidents was modified. tions of These appointments were to be still reserved to the Crown, on the presidents and vicepresentation of the councils, who might submit names of members presidents. or non-members; but the new Bill proposed that in cases in which a council was presided over by a master Prud'homme, the vicepresident should necessarily be a workman, and vice versa; so far assimilating the practice to that introduced in France in 1880.

IV. In order, on the other hand, to satisfy the masters, the IV. Equality Bill proposed to abolish the clause of the 1859 Act, whereby after of representation of two convocations the council could pronounce judgment, no masters and matter what might be the proportion of masters and working men workmen. Prud'hommes present at the sitting.

V. The Bill proposed the exclusion of innkeepers and retailers V. Innof spirits from the council.

VI. Lastly, the Government Bill adopted the scheme sugoxcluded.
VI. Separate gested by the Labour Commission, whereby, whenever possible, councils for the same or similar industries should be grouped together in similar separate councils.

The discussion of this measure was continued at great length Report of the during two parliamentary sessions, and gave rise to a conflict Senate on the of opinion between the Senate and the Lower Chamber.

The whole question was exhaustively treated in a report of 1889.

Question of

position and

eligibility of

foremen.

the Senatorial Commission, to which the Bill had been referred, drawn up by Mr. Montefiore Levi, in March, 1889.

After pointing out that the object of the new measure as understood by the Commission was threefold—(1) to enlarge the electorate, (2) to secure secrecy of voting, and (3) to guarantee a real representation and a perfect equality in the Council Chamber between masters and workmen, the report drew special attention to the question of the position of the foremen, who, during the discussion of the Bill in the Chamber of Representatives, had been reincluded in the category of workmen, against the recommendation of the Labour Commission, and the original proposal of the The Senate's Commission clearly expressed their Government. disapproval of this amendment. They stated that the foremen or workmen inspectors belonged to neither of the two categories, for whom alone the councils had been instituted; that the masters were perfectly able to defend their own interests; that if the masters were allowed by law to entrust the defence of their interests in the councils to their foremen, it was to be feared that in course of time all of them would adopt this course, and that the councils would end by being composed exclusively of foremen and workmen, as had indeed already happened in Hainault; and that if the foremen were declared eligible as workmen's representatives, the theoretical freedom of the workmen to elect their own candidates would be rendered perfectly illusory. The workman often hardly knows his master by sight, sometimes not seeing him for weeks or months at a time; his personal dealings are with the foreman only, who necessarily, under these circumstances, stands to him in the place of the employer. The Chamber of Representatives, however, in spite of all the arguments adduced against this course, insisted on reinstating the foremen amongst the workmen.

The educa-

With regard to the maintenance or not of the reading and writing test, a point which had also been warmly contested, Mr. Montesiore Levi stated that he himself was in favour of the French system of 1848, which abolished the educational test for electors, while maintaining it for candidates for election: the educational test created by the Belgian law of 1859 was doubtless difficult to enforce, when exacted from electors and candidates alike, but would be much easier to apply when exacted from the latter only; and there were, in his opinion, weighty reasons against the admission of illiterates into the council chamber. The majority of the Senatorial Commission admitted that it would be difficult to impose educational tests on the Prud'homme candidates, in view of the fact that such were not required in the legislative, provincial, or communal elections. They, nevertheless, unanimously objected to the special mention made in the Bill of "candidates unable to write," as offering almost an encouragement to ignorance, by officially declaring illiterates to be eligible for the councils.

The Act, as eventually passed, abolished the educational test altogether.

The Senate's Commission further objected to the clause

rendering obligatory four years' residence in the council's district before the right of voting could be acquired: the aim of the Reform Bill being to bring as many electors as possible to the poll, they would have preferred, were it possible, to abolish entirely the residential qualification. As this would render the task of drawing up the electoral lists impossible, the term of residence should at any rate be reduced to the lowest limit, strictly indispensable for the purpose (six months, one or at most two years, instead of four years). In reply to the allegation that the intended extension of the council's districts diminished the inconveniences arising from the frequent change of domicile of the working population, the Commission replied that this very extension was not in itself an advantage to the Prud'homme organisation, and that, therefore, all should be done to limit the necessity of unduly extending the area assigned to each council.

Lastly, Mr. Montefiore Levi proposed that, instead of passing Proposal to a Bill merely amending the law of 1859, it would be far better recast Government to recast the whole measure, and draw up a new organic law Bill, and to complete in itself to replace that of 1859.

This suggestion was adopted by the Government, and the organic law. following is a summary of the measure as eventually passed:—

The aim of the councils of Prud'hommes, as defined in Article I, organic law of the terminate by means of conciliation or in default of the councils of is "to terminate by means of conciliation, or in default of this, Prud'hommes by judicial sentence, differences arising either between employers of July 81, f labour ('chefs d'industrie') and their workpeople, or between 1889. workpeople themselves, within the limits and by the means laid Functions of councils. down by the present Act.

"They are entrusted, besides, with certain powers specially

conferred by the law."

By the term "employers" are understood manufacturers, Definition of masters, managing directors, and administrators of industrial employers. establishments, managers, contractors, engineers, and assistantdirectors of mines, quarries, and mineralurgical works, and those who own or fit out sea-fishing boats.

By "employed" are understood artisans, foremen ("contremaîtres"), workmen-employed either in workshops, or on behalf of employers of labour, and the masters and crew of fishing-

boats.

The councils are created by a special law in each case, which How created. assigns to each its district. Special councils for certain industries or groups of industries can be established in the same district, provided such industries are of sufficient importance to justify a special jurisdiction; or, as an alternative, special "chambers" (or committees) can be established in one and the same council. Before the Royal decree is issued, determining the number of members of each new council, or of the several committees of the same, the opinion of the communal councils in the district, and of the permanent provincial committees shall be obtained.

Each council must consist (without including the president Composition and vice-president when these are named outside the council) of councils. of at least six members; and each special committee of at least

Summary of



four members, chosen half by the masters half by the men; and attached to each council are four deputy-members, two represent-

ing each category of members.

Qualification suffrage.

In order to exercise the suffrage it is necessary—(1) to belong for exercise of to one of the categories of employers and employed, as explained above, (2) to be a Belgian subject, (3) to be over 25 years of age, (4) to be domiciled, as a general rule, for at least one year within the council's district, and to have there effectively exercised one of the necessary industries or callings for at least four years: subject to the above conditions, the new law establishes universal suffrage for the councils of Prud'hommes.

Criminals, bankrupts, persons of notoriously bad character, cannot be inscribed as electors on the lists which are drawn up separately for each trade, in alphabetical order, and submitted every three years by the communal authorities to the provincial

governments.

Qualifications for election as of age.

Electors are eligible as Prud'hommes after attaining 30 years Retired employers and workmen are also eligible, Prud'hommes provided they fulfil the other necessary conditions, but they must in no case exceed one-fourth of the total number of members of Foremen and shipmasters cannot also form any one council. more than one-fourth of the total council. Innkeepers and retailers of spirits are not eligible; and with regard to the application of this exclusion, a house kept by the wife of an elector is to be considered as kept by the husband. A Prud'homme condemned to more than six months' imprisonment is ipso facto disqualified from taking part in the sittings of the council. Two employers belonging to the same firm, or two workmen in the same workshop, and persons nearly related or connected, cannot belong to the same council.

Steps to be taken at election time by the local authorities.

The communal authorities are bound to deliver to each elector a card of identification valid for three years, and to summon the electors at least 15 days before the day of election, both by bills duly posted up in the commune in which the council meets, and by circulars addressed to each elector; both documents stating the day, hour, and place of election, as well as the number and

professions of the Prud'hommes to be elected.

The masters and workmen meet separately in private to elect their several representatives; their assemblies being divided into as many "sections" or committees as the provincial governor may deem advisable. In no case, however, can a section comprise more than 400 electors: each electoral assembly or section is presided over by a member of the municipal council of the place where the election is held. The representatives are chosen by ballot by an absolute majority of all present, or, if this is not obtainable at the first ballot, by a relative majority at the second: should the voting be equal, the senior candidate is to be held elected.

New elections

Every third year, in the month of December, new elections are held for half the number of Prud'hommes and deputy Prud'hommes, an equal number of masters and workmen resigning: the outgoing members are re-eligible.

The president and vice-president are named, not as is done of the in France, since 1880, by the council themselves, but by Royal president and decree, from a double list of candidates, presented, one by the vice-presimasters and the other by the men, members and non-members being alike eligible. If the president should be a master, the vice-president must be a workman, and vice-versa, both being named for three years, and re-eligible. In cases where a council is divided into several committees, the latter elect their own presidents and vice-presidents. In cases of equal voting, the president has a casting vote.

Each council forms from amongst its members a Board of Of the interior Mediation ("Bureau de Conciliation"), composed of one master organisation, member and one workman member, who may both be represented procedure of by deputies. This board must meet at least once a week; before the councils. any disputed point can be referred to the council, it must first be submitted to the Board of Conciliation; and before proceeding to pronounce judgment, the council itself must also make another effort to settle the matter amicably.

The council, which must meet at least twice a month, can Means to only sit when composed equally of masters and workmen ensure Prud'hommes, two of each category being the legal minimum the councils Should the president or vice-president, one of whom must be between always present, be outsiders, they are not to be reckoned in this masters and legal minimum. Should the members present be insufficient to men. from a legal court, the matter is adjourned to the next following sitting, when, should the same impediment again occur, the council shall draw up a procés-verbal, naming the member absent from the two sittings of the court for transmission to the Procureur-Général. The absentee shall then be summoned before the disrtict Appeal Court, and, unless he can justify his absence, shall be condemned to a fine varying from 26 fr. to 200 fr. (1l. 0s. 10d. to 8l.), and to imprisonment of from three to eight days, or to one of these penalties only, and shall further be deemed to have vacated his seat.

After this second sitting either party may, if he thinks fit, lay his case before the justice of the peace ("juge de paix"), with an appeal, as the case may be, to the ordinary commercial or civil tribunals.

The councils deal with differences either between workmen or Of the between masters and workmen of both sexes, arising out of work, competence labour, or wages. Without prejudice to the proceedings before labour, or wages. Without prejudice to the proceedings before the ordinary tribunals, they may also take cognisance of, and punish by disciplinary measures, breaches of contract, and conduct tending to a breach of the peace, the punishment in such cases not to exceed a fine of 25 fr., and subject to an appeal to the civil court of first instance of the district. With the consent of both parties, the mediation of the council of Prud'hommes may be demanded in matters otherwise outside the competency of the court—as, for instance, in disputes between two or more employers.

The council pronounce judgment up to 200 fr. without

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appeal; for sentences above that sum, an appeal lies to the tribunal of commerce, or in all matters relating to mines, to the civil tribunal of first instance.

The parties have one full day's notice from the clerk of the council of the place, date, and hour of hearing; they are bound to appear in court, together with their witnesses, if any, no lawyers being employed. In large centres the Board of Conciliation meet twice a week, and the council once a week, the vast majority of cases being decided off-hand. If on the appointed day one of the parties should not put in an appearance, judgment is given by Both the council and the Board of Conciliation may depute one or more of their members to examine witnesses on the spot and verify the alleged occurrences.

Cost of councils met by the communes.

Clerks' salaries paid government.

The expenditure incurred by the councils of Prud'hommes is met by all the communes comprised in the council's districts, proportionally to the number of workmen employed in each commune, according to a scheme of distribution drawn up by the permanent provincial committee; the court-rooms and cells for prisoners are also provided by the communal authorities. The by the central Government, on the other hand, pay the clerks ("greffiers") of the council, whose salaries vary from 600 fr. to 1.700 fr. (241, to 681.). In this year's estimates for the Department of Agriculture. Industry, and Public Works, a vote of 23,400 fr. (936L) is asked for this service.

Budget of the Brussels Council of Prud'hommes for 1890.

The following table gives the details of last year's expenditure of the Brussels Council of Prud'hommes:—

		Authorised Expenditure.		Actual Expenditure.	
		Fr.	C.	Fr.	c.
1. Salaries ("jetons de présence") *		8,400	00	8,065	00
2. Travelling expenses †	٠. ا	100	00	l	
3. Indemnity for experts and witnesses	٠.١	100	00	10	00
4. Expenses for lighting, &c 5. Sundry expenses—	$\cdot \cdot  $	500	00	400	00
A Mainen marke among		1,200	00	1,200	00
B. Garman dance		100	00	65	85
0.73		150	00	137	45
D. D. (11)		125	00	109	00
T II-foreseen empenses		100	00	7	00
		5,775	00	4,994	80
		4,994	80		
Unexpended balance, 1890	•	780	70		

The receipts on account of drawings and industrial models deposited with the Brussels Council of Prud'hommes amounted last year to 438 fr. (17L 10s. 5d.).

<sup>\*</sup> The salaries are fixed by the provincial committees of each province, calculated on the average amount of the workman's daily wages.

<sup>†</sup> Journey expenses are allowed when the Prud'hommes live over 5 kiloms. from the meeting-place of the council. These expenses are fixed by Royal decree.

The clause whereby a four years' exercise of a calling in a council's district is necessary before the right to vote can be obtained seems somewhat hard, and will in certain cases act even more than appears at first sight to the workman's disadvantage; the lists of electors are made every three years: suppose the case of a man arriving in a district just before this operation takes place. under these circumstances he cannot be inscribed on the first or next following lists—not having exercised his calling for the legal period—and will remain without being able to vote for six years.

It is further alleged that the communal authorities have in certain instances required the workmen to bring certificates from their employers, stating that they had worked in the council's district for four years: it is easy to see that such a proceeding might lead to serious abuses, and would seem, moreover, to be hardly warranted by the text of the law. The fact of a workman being inscribed on the communal register as exercising therein any trade or calling would appear to be sufficient, and men momentarily out of work should not for that reason alone be necessarily excluded from voting for the working men Prud'-

In spite, however, of these slight blemishes, there can be Valuable no doubt that the organic law of 1889 is a great improve-services ment on that of 1859, placing, as it does, the Prud'hommes the Prud'. organisation more in harmony with the existing requirements hommes. of trade. The election of the master Prud'hommes has not bitherto been regarded as a political question, and the best available men are generally chosen to represent the employers. the other hand, the advanced Radical party are undoubtedly making an effort to control the working men's elections. Their organs recommend that the Socialist organisation, known as the "Fédérations du parti ouvrier," should undertake the direction of all matters relating to the councils of Prud'hommes, and should control the choice of the working men's candidates, thereby opening up a new field to political wire-pulling and intrigue, and to class interests. The principal organ of the Brussels Socialists, alluding to this subject, remarked the other day that "if the councils of Prud'hommes can be but of little use to us, we must all the same get hold of them, to prevent them from being used as an arm directed against us in the hands of our adversaries." This is hardly the spirit in which to regard an organisation which is expressly intended to allay the antagonism of employers and employed, and to act with independence and impartiality in all trade disputes.

#### PART II.—Councils of Industry and Labour.

Before passing to the consideration of another organisation, Difference that of the Councils of Industry and Labour, altogether distinct between the from the councils of Prud'hommes, it may be useful to briefly Prud'hommes, point out the radical difference between them.

As has been shown above, the councils of Prud'hommes are regularly recognised judicial tribunals, whose sentences are obligatory, and whose competency is legally defined. They pronounce judgment on facts arising out of the execution or non-execution of contracts passed between employers and employed: their deliberations and decisions are always based on these contracts; they cannot compel a master to pay a higher wage than that which he had undertaken to pay, nor to decrease the hours of work, if a given number of hours were explicitly or tacitly agreed to beforehand.

Boards of conciliation and arbitration.

The boards of conciliation and arbitration, as they exist in the United Kingdom and in the United States, are voluntary tribunals, due to private initiative; no general rules exist as to the electorate by which they are appointed, nor as to their mode of operations when created. Their aim is restricted to the amicable settlement of industrial disputes.

And the Councils of Industry and Labour.

The Councils of Industry and Labour, created by the law of August 16, 1887, in the organisation of which (as explained in my report on "Belgian Legislation, affecting economic and labour questions"\*), the executive government and the local authorities have both their share, are the result of a still further step in the direction of conciliation; they constitute a special representation of commercial interests, both of labour and capital, and their chief duty is to give an opinion on all matters which touch these In a lesser degree, no doubt, they have also to exercise a moderating influence in trade disputes, and are charged with the duties of conciliation, or, should that fail, of arbitration; but M. Frère Orban, the leader of the Liberal opposition, and the author of the law of 1887, intended that the councils should have a twofold character—that they should be primarily administrative bodies, charged with the collection of statistical data bearing on the state of industry, price of food, rate of wages, averages of rents, both at home and abroad, and on all matters connected with trade and labour; and, secondarily, consultative institutions, bringing masters and men together; in the absence of any industrial struggle, and before any contest should break out, to deliberate and pronounce an opinion on all matters affecting their common interests.

Unfortunately, considerable difficulty has been hitherto experienced in carrying out the law of 1887, instituting the Councils of Industry and Labour. Articles IV. and V., instead of explaining the means whereby these councils should be elected, simply refer to the analogous stipulations of the Prud'hommes law.

They are as follows:—

Art. IV. "Each section" (of the Council of Industry and Labour) "is composed of an equal number of masters and workmen, such as they are defined by the organic law of the councils of Prud'hommes. This number, which cannot be less than six or more than 12, is fixed by the decree instituting the council."

Art. V. "The workmen chose amongst themselves, following the system and conditions fixed by the Prud'hommes law, the delegates to represent them in the section."

<sup>\*</sup> See Miscellaneous Series No. 110, 1888.

From the very first a doubt arose as to the interpretation of Article V. Was it intended thereby that the workmen's delegates should be elected in conformity with the dispositions of the Prud'hommes law, or was it simply a general indication to the Government as to the measures to be taken in carrying out the new law? And this was not the only difficulty: when the law of 1887 was passed, the old organic Prud'hommes law of 1859 was still in force; and the Government, when drawing up the Royal decree of 1888, which explained the means of enforcing the law Royal decree of 1887, were obliged to base their instructions on the then exist- of July 31, ing Prud'hommes law, already condemned by public opinion, the 1888. See my revision of which was actually under discussion in Parliament.

As soon as the new organic law of the councils of Prud'- p. 7. hommes had received the Royal assent in July, 1889, it was necessary to make corresponding modifications in the regulations

of the Councils of Industry and Labour.

By a Royal decree of August, 1889, replacing that of the Royal decree previous year, the educational test, hitherto exacted from the of August 15, electors, is abolished; residence in the district assigned to the Pexecution de council is no longer an obligatory condition to be exacted from la loi du 16 all electors; masters and workmen, provided they have exercised aout 1887, their calling for four years at least in the council's district, have conseil de an absolute right to be electors for the section of the council de an absolute right to be electors for the section of the council l'Industrie et representing such calling, and the electorate is thus thrown open du Travail. to all concerned, no matter where they may happen to be domiciled.

It will thus be seen that, owing to the unfortunate dependence Impossible as of the law establishing the Councils of Industry and Labour on yet to form an the moribund Prud'hommes law of 1859, the former was practi- the success or cally in a state of suspended animation, and could not be effec- not of the tively put into force until the Prud'hommes law had been Councils of overhauled and recast. The Councils of Industry and Labour can Labour. hardly yet be said to be in general working order; sufficient time has not elapsed to enable a judgment to be formed as to the operations of the new institution, nor as to its utility in minimising conflicts between labour and capital.

A dispute between a coal-mining company and the miners Cases decided near Liege was recently referred to the new council; the men had by the undertaken to work a vein of coal at a fixed price: half way of Industry through the coal suddenly got much harder, and the miners, on and Labour. being refused a rise in their wages, went out on strike. council, to whom the matter was referred, decided that the men should return to work, and receive an increase of wages as compensation for the additional labour necessary to work the vein.

To cite another case, recently reported in the papers, nearly 500 steel workers struck at Seraing, on account of the dismissal of one of their companions, the men declaring that he had been dismissed on account of his political opinions; the employers, on the contrary, asserted that he was grossly irregular at his work. Thanks to the intervention of the council, the matter was amicably arranged, and work was resumed on the 13th inst.

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The two cases cited above are, however, instances of the secondary or conciliatory functions of the new councils, and do not illustrate the main purpose for which they were instituted. As an instance of the latter, I may refer to a Royal decree, dated the 21st inst., summoning the competent sections of the Councils of Liége and Fraipont to meet on Easter Monday, to examine the changes which it may be desirable to make in the decisions of the Cannon Founders' Syndicate, with regard to the responsibility for the goods turned out at their works.

As illustrating the quasi-political action which some of the councils seem likely to adopt, a petition was presented on the 10th inst. to the Chamber of Representatives, by the Brussels Council, on the subject of the electoral rights of workmen, and their claim to exercise the parliamentary franchise. The petitioners beg the Government to do all in their power to avert the general strike threatened in the event of Parliament rejecting the proposal now under consideration for a revision of the Constitution—a step which they consider would have a disastrous effect on Belgian industry and commerce.

It is reported that the Government propose shortly to convoke a plenary session of the Councils of Industry and Labour, in order to obtain their opinion on questions connected with workmen's wages, and the price of food, which, it is feared, will be affected by the denunciation of various commercial treaties with

this country.

Debate in the Chamber of Representatives on the Councils of Industry and Labour.

On the 4th inst. M. Frère Orban called attention in the Chamber of Representatives to the formation in France of a higher council of labour; he reminded the House that the Act of 1887 authorised the executive not only to unite all the sections of each council, but even several sections belonging to different "In no other country," said his Excellency, "are the councils. workmen entrusted with any such official participation in the matters which concern them; it would, in fact, be possible, by uniting all the different sections, to form a sort of labour parlia-We need not go so far as this just yet, as without due preparation and education neither masters nor men could usefully undertake such a task, but the means already exist in Belgium to bring about an exchange of ideas between employers and employed;" and he urged that the councils should be encouraged to deliberate on economic questions, such as pensions' funds, workmen's insurance, the employment of women and children, the half-time system, and the evils of intemperance, but that they should not be suffered to discuss matters of political interest outside their competence.

M. Bruyn, the Minister of Agricultural Industry and Public Works, in his reply, declared that the Government desired to give the greatest possible extension to the new organisation, that the councils had been summoned whenever their intervention had been asked for, and that the executive had of its own initiative convoked them on several occasions, when it appeared that they might usefully intervene in settling disputes between labour and

More than this it was impossible to do, and his Excellency complained of the want of interest taken in the

organisation by the majority of the communal authorities.

M. de Bruyn further announced that the Government intended to complete the organisation by creating a higher council of labour, a direct outcome of the existing Councils of Industry and Labour. The scheme has not yet been elaborated, but it was proposed that the new council, which should meet in Brussels, should consist of three categories of members—masters, workmen, and representative functionaries and publicists; the latter to be named by the Government, the two former, contrary to the system adopted in France, would probably be delegates elected by the local councils. This higher council would undertake the examination of strikes and lock-outs, and such economic questions as had been alluded to by M. Frère Orban; it would further be authorised to draft bills and royal decrees bearing on labour questions, and collate the opinions presented by the various local councils on matters submitted to their consideration by the Government.

In concluding this account of the Councils of Industry and Summary of Labour, the following summary of the Royal decree of January, Royal decree of January, of January 18, 1890, instituting the council for the capital, may not be without 1890, institutinterest.

ing the

The Brussels Council of Industry and Labour is composed of Brussels Council of 21 sections, which represent respectively:— Industry and 1. The wood trade: joiners, carpenters, cabinet-makers, chair- Labour. makers, bamboo-furniture makers, sawyers, turners, wood car- Art. I.

vers, packers.

2. The printing trade: type-writers, lithographers, engravers, type-founders.

3. Tailoring and dress-making trades.

4. Iron trade: mechanicians, founders, locksmiths, ironmongers, safe-makers, blacksmiths, forgers, screwmakers.

5. Building trades: brick-masons, marble-workers, stonemasons, plasterers, ornamental stone-carvers.

6. Hatters (silk, felt, and straw).

- 7. Glove-makers.
- 8. Bootmakers.
- 9. Bookbinding trades.
- 10. Goldsmiths' trades.
- 11. Coachbuilding trades, including saddlery.

12. Tobacconists.

- 13. Weaving industries, manufacturers of cloths, &c., oilcloths, india-rubber.
- 14. Chemical products trade (soaps, matches, gas, electricity, candles, cartridges, &c.).

15. Carriers' trade: carters, drivers.

16. Braziers' and lamp-makers' trades: workers in bronze, copper, pewter, tin, lead, and zinc.

17. Tanners and leather-dressing trades.

18. House painters and decorators.

19. Upholsterers' trades.

20. Musical instrument makers.

21. Looking-glass makers, framers, gilders.

The first four sections are composed each of eight effective members and two deputy members chosen for each section, half by the employers, half by the employed, belonging to the trades enumerated in Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4 alone, and fulfilling the necessary conditions of eligibility.

The 17 remaining sections are composed of six effective members and two deputy members, elected under the same con-

ditions.

The district assigned to the council embraces the capital and suburban communes.

Art, II.

The communal authorities of the district shall draw up the electoral lists of both categories, in conformity with the Royal decree of August 15, 1889, the electors being enrolled, no matter where may be their domicile, on the lists of the communes in which they work.

These lists shall be posted up on February 15, 1890.

Art. III.

During the 60 days from that date, the permanent provincial committee of Brabant shall decide on any complaints made as to these lists, which shall be accepted as definite after the expiration of 70 days from the date on which they were posted up.

This exceptional reference to the provincial committee shall only be made at the first election of members of the council; for the first triennial re-election, and subsequently, the lists shall be

drawn up solely by the communal administrations.

Art. IV.

Should the provincial committee find, after examining the lists of masters' electors for the first four sections, that their numbers are less than five, and for the other 17 sections less than four, they shall, in order to complete the list, nominate one of the masters of the same trade taken from a neighbouring locality.

Art. V.

The election of the working men candidates, and, if needful, of the masters' candidates, shall take place at Brussels in May, 1890, in conformity with the decree of 1889.

Observations on composition of Brussels Council. It is noteworthy that in the above list of trades represented on the Brussels Council of Industry and Labour, no mention is made of bakers, butchers, confectioners, or of any other trade connected with the supply of food; nor is any representation accorded to the trades specially followed by women.

Several of the sections of the Brussels Council represent whole groups of trades, the first, for instance, no less than nine distinct subdivisions of the wood trade; instead of restricting the workmen's representatives to 4 in the first 4 sections, and to 3 in the remaining 17 sections, it would appear only reasonable to allow each distinct trade to have at least its own working man's representative — the employers' representation being of course similarly augmented. As at present organised, more than half the trades comprised in Section I of the Brussels Council are necessarily without any direct representation in that section.

In addition to these criticisms on the composition of the And on the Brussels Council, it is objected that too little initiative is allowed general to the whole organisation; the separate sections, which are of the perfectly distinct and autonomous, do at present meet periodically; Councils of but the power of convoking a plenary meeting of any one Industry and council, or even of several sections belonging to the same or to different councils, is vested in the Crown: it is urged that the councils themselves should meet at regular intervals without waiting for a special summons in the shape of a Royal decree; and that the orders of the day and the length of each session should be determined, not as now by the executive, but by the councils. The existing system hampers very considerably the initiative of the councils, and appears to indicate a certain amount of distrust on the part of the authors of the law.

Again, under the existing regulations, the several sections meet only once a year, unless specially convoked by the provincial authorities; here, too, it would appear desirable to draw a less hard and fast line, either by permitting the sections to meet periodically at shorter intervals, or by allowing extraordinary sessions to be summoned at the demand of any of the trades

interested.

It appears probable that when once the councils get fairly to work, these and other modifications will have to be made, with a view to giving a larger extension to the new institution, thereby enabling it to render yet greater services to the State.

P.S.—April 21, 1891.—To-day's "Moniteur Belge" publishes the text of two Royal decrees, dated the 18th inst., convoking in extraordinary session the Councils of Industry and Labour of Courtrai and Ostend (province of West Flanders), on the 5th and 12th proximo, and the first section of the Council of Fraipont, and the Council of Grivegnée (province of Liége), on the 4th and 11th inst., to deliberate on the following order of the day:—

"Information to be furnished to the Government on wages, price of food stuffs, and workmen's receipts and expenditure, in view of studying questions raised by the denunciation of com-

mercial treaties."

By the terms of the decrees the councils must conclude their labours on the dates specified, and the discussion is to be limited to the subject submitted for their consideration in the order of the

dav.

This is the first occasion, since the Councils of Industry and Labour were organised, that they have been united by the executive to deliberate on a subject affecting not any particular district, but the general interest and welfare of the whole kingdom. The two former councils represent the Flemish-speaking districts; the two latter the Walloon country.

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## DENMARK.

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# A PROJECT FOR MAKING COPENHAGEN A FREE PORT.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, DECEMBER, 1890.

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### DENMARK.

### COPENHAGEN.

Mr. MacDonell to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Copenhagen, November 8, 1890.

THE Bill for the creation of a Free Harbour at Copenhagen, which, as reported in my Despatch of February 13 last, was laid before the Rigsdag in the course of last session, was passed in the Upper Chamber only, after a minute inquiry, the Folkething refusing to discuss it on the plea of lack of time.

It is however intended, I am informed, to revive the Bill very shortly in an amended shape, its details having been re-examined by the Harbour Board. It may very possibly be presented to the Rigsdag, presumably in the Folkething, in the course of the

present month.

In the meantime a pamphlet has been issued by the Customs Reform Association of Copenhagen advocating the establishment of such a free harbour as the sole practicable means of reviving the drooping industries of Denmark. I beg to enclose an abridged translation of the same by Mr. Conway Thornton, whose attention and care in the preparation of such papers deserve much credit.

I have, &c. (Signed) H. G. MACDONELL.

Summary of a Pumphlet Published by the Customs Reform Association of Copenhagen concerning a proposed Free Port.

I.

The improvement realised in Danish national resources Falling off in between the years 1870 and 1880 has not only come to a stand-Danish still, but has given place to a falling-off, production no longer national resources. Covering consumption. This state of things has been hitherto partially concealed through the sale of obligations abroad, and a consequent increase in the general indebtedness of the country; but this system cannot be prolonged indefinitely, and some sounder recuperative method must be found.

Agriculture, the chief source of the national income, has well- The general nigh reached its limit of expansion, and is continually menaced by revenue must

foreign competition.

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be increased.

Other sources of national wealth must be discovered, and these must necessarily lie in an expansion either of our exports or of the economical services rendered in other ways to foreign nations.

It is of the first necessity that everything possible shall be done to facilitate that expansion: in particular, by the removal of all obstacles thereto.

Working

Competition is severe, and gains must accordingly be small. expenses must The surest way to increase them is to cut down working ex-So vital a point has this become, that a very trifling economy in working effected by us may suffice at times to turn the balance in our favour.

A free port such expenses.

Of all hindrances to husiness transactions there is none equal to customs control for waste of time and trouble; especially as regards goods imported for subsequent re-exportation, either altered, or after having been subjected to a greater or less number of processes. The result is no gain to the revenue, but simply an aggravation of the difficulties caused by foreign competition. The only real remedy lies in the establishment of a free port.

Definition of a free port.

A free port is a harbour with an adjoining area of land. which the State declares to be emancipated from customs control. In its eyes it constitutes a slice of foreign territory, with which Within the privileged the customs authorities have no concern. district goods may be imported, stored, handled, worked upon, and finally re-exported, without those authorities having any voice Not only could businesses now successfully in the matter. carried on under customs restrictions be put upon a still more favourable footing by the help of such a port, but many which are at present incapable of forming remunerative undertakings would be changed into profitable enterprises.

Return of port.

Goods which, under the present system, are imported and reduties or a free exported after various processes pay duties on their entry, which are returned when they go out again. This involves loss both of time and money, and, in fact, it is only in the case of goods passing out again unaltered that the actual duties can be returned. allowance can be made for waste occurring either in working, or The various substances again which are simply by storage. employed or consumed, such as coal, oil, machines, &c., carry no claim to compensation for the duties originally paid by them; all of which tends to enhance the difficulty of competing with the foreigner.

A free port chiefly concerned with transit trade,

A free port has little to do with goods imported into the the country and consumed there. All such goods will naturally pay duty on leaving the grounds of the port to be carried inland. Its principal concern, therefore, is with goods imported from abroad, and destined to be re-exported with or without an intermediate operation. Transactions of other kinds may of course be combined therewith, but the main object of a free port will remain the transit trade.

A free port is not one exempt from dues, but only from The same port dues may be charged as in the ordinary portion of the harbour, of which the free port forms one part. Its object, however, would be defeated were not the said dues to be kept as low as possible.

#### II.

What, in the first place, are the existing conditions in regard Actual con-

to the harbour of Copenhagen?

Actual conditions affeciing Copent hagen har-

It is situated at the entrance to the Baltic, on one of the most hagen har-frequented of the world's waterways. At little expense for bour. dredging, &c., it can be kept in good order to receive ocean-steamers, while most of the Baltic ports are shallower. There is no tide, and the occasions when it is blocked with ice are rare and of short duration, so that the harbour can be used both day and

night and nearly the whole year round.

Hamburg and Bremen lie respectively about 70 and 55 miles from the mouths of the Elbe and Weser. Only vessels bound for these towns enter the rivers. The tides interfere with the passage during 12 hours out of the 24, and obstruction by ice is frequent. No winter passes without such hindrance. The rivers are difficult to enter, and the cost of pilotage and towing is heavy. Hamburg alone has to spend over 500,000 marks yearly, merely to preserve a high-water depth of 18 feet at the entry. Large vessels cannot go up the stream in full cargo.

Nevertheless, Copenhagen harbour is one of the most expensive ones in existence to use, far more so than Hamburg or

Bremen harbours.

In the latter ports every convenience for lading and unlading vessels is to be found: steam cranes, covered quays, immediate connection with railways and road carriages, &c., so that all un-

necessary loss of time and trouble is avoided.

At Copenhagen the harbour is only in part connected with the railway, steam cranes scarcely exist, the warehouses cannot be directly approached without employing carriages after the goods have been landed, generally by means of hand labour. Removal from the warehouses, again, can only be effected by carriage. Goods lading or unlading are exposed to all weathers. Finally, warehouse room is so limited that Danish merchants cannot order such large amounts of goods as they desire for sheer want of place to store in.

Notwithstanding these defects, our harbour enjoys a certain amount of foreign trade, which might of course be largely increased if its expenses were the smallest instead of the largest, if its conveniences were the most studied instead of the most neglected, and if shippers were thereby induced to give the preference to Copenhagen instead of, as now, demanding higher

freights thither than to Hamburg or Bremen.

Unless we do the best for ourselves, will not Hamburg and The North Sea Bremen, by means of the new canal and the improved communi- Canal. cation obtained by its means with the Baltic ports, take away from us the trade which we now enjoy? To retain it, not to speak of increasing it, we must by all means procure new advan(1002)

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tages, while at the same time we abolish the old hindrances, for which we ourselves are alone to blame.

What is to be done?

All are agreed that such measures must be adopted as will counteract the influence of the canal, and first and foremost we must diminish the charges which now weigh so heavily upon shipping. We must make our harbour as cheap as others are, and furnish it with suitable and sufficient landing stages, storage-room, and machinery for lading and unlading.

Best position for new harbour. All this is impossible of execution in the old harbour, owing to the manner in which it has been encroached upon by buildings. The only feasible site lies to the north of the citadel, where the harbour can be enlarged in such a way as to afford the easiest possible access for shipping, with lower charges even for pilotage and towing than in the old harbour, and, if other charges are kept low, even by-going vessels may be induced to touch there for various purposes.

The new harbour should be a free port.

In order to have at once the cheapest and most convenient harbour in these seas, and at the same time to draw the utmost advantage from it, it should be a free one. If any one deny this position, the burden of proof lies with him.

A free port as concerned with transit trade. While nobody denies that exemption from duties should be accorded to re-exported foreign goods, it is equally clear that under the present system an immense deal of time and labour is wasted in the unavoidable customs operations, cramping and hindering trade and industry. By the establishment of a free harbour all this can be saved. Great, indeed, must be the necessity which should compel the maintenance of the old system, with all its useless and costly hindrances, in preference to one which would admit of ships running in and out of port, day and night at all times of the year, with the least possible wear and tear, delay and expense.

Bonded warehouses. Bonded warehouses undoubtedly afford considerable facilities for both inland and foreign trade; at the same time they are but makeshifts when compared with a free harbour. All the advantages they offer are shared to a greater extent by the other, and any possible disadvantages connected with the latter exist tenfold in bonded warehouses. These are, in fact, merely portions of a free harbour, hampered by restrictions and expenses unknown to the latter; the continued customs inspection, the limited business hours, the contracted space and consequent prohibition of fire and lights combine to render all transactions difficult.

In the interests, then, of our transit trade, the new harbour of

Copenhagen should be free.

A free port as concerns exports. In order to enable our exports to compete with foreign manufactures, it is desirable to free them from duty. Much can be done in this way by returning the duties paid on raw material imported for manufacture of home-made articles. Still no allowance is made for the subsidiary substances employed, for those actually consumed in the process, nor for unavoidable waste. Much of this is incapable of verification by the customs control, which constitutes in itself a perpetual trouble and loss of time. If we wish our industry to

compete with that of the foreigner, we must place it upon an equally favourable footing, and free it from all such vexatious hindrances. We must do all that we can to prevent the foreigner from gaining an advantage over us, and not only that, but also to obtain advantages over him; and the best means we can employ is to establish a free port.

### III .- Our Compe'ilors.

To expand and improve our transit and export trade we must, therefore, get rid of hindrances, and make the most of our many natural advantages. The North Sea Canal may indeed rob us of a portion of those advantages, but it need not discourage us from renewed and more strongous efforts. The advantages boasted of by our rivals are to a great extent illusory. Hamburg and Bremen, it is claimed for them, enjoy the benefit of the vast continent at their backs, and, by means of the canal, they will become Baltic ports. Of course, the inland trade of those towns is highly remunerative, but it has no connection with their free harbours.

Those of the Hamburg and Bremen merchants, who only turned their attention to the inland traffic, would gladly have seen the two towns enter completely into the Customs Union. The majority of them, however, recognised the fact that the true importance of these towns lies, not in the German home trade, in and out, but in the transit trade; and accordingly they willingly submitted to such enormous sacrifices in order to retain the privileges of their free This fact is not sufficiently taken into consideration, when the comparison is instituted between the capabilities of the free harbours of Hamburg and Bremen on the one side, and, on the other, of a free harbour at Copenhagen, established and furnished with every modern convenience.

The circumstance that the harbours of Bremen and Hamburg "The vast are free has no effect, favourable or otherwise, upon trade passing continent." through them directly between Germany and foreign countries, but merely upon that between one foreign country and another: the enormous expenditure of capital therefore incurred by them for the purpose of freeing their harbours had no reference whatever to the "vast continent" at their backs. In this respect, therefore, Copenhagen might possess equal chances of prosperity with them, despite the undoubtedly enormous superiority in trade and capital which they at present enjoy. It is only a question of persevering effort on the part of the Danish merchant to improve his natural advantages. Hitherto, indeed, we have missed many favourable opportunities, but that must not happen any more.

At the time of the entry of Hamburg into the German Customs Advantage to Union, attention was drawn to the fact that the mercantile im-Hamburg of the free portance of the town lay, not in its situation, but in its free harbour. harbour. Goods were actually brought far out of the most direct and, in other respects, cheaper route to their destination, in order to profit by the conveniences afforded at Hamburg for the various operations, inspection, sampling, sorting, repacking, &c., to which



Disadvantageous positions of Hamburg and Bremen.

they could there be subjected in freedon from customs interference. The town accordingly spent 150,000,000 marks to preserve its free harbour; but in spite of this sacrifice, and of the similar one made by Bremen, these two towns can do nothing to help their unfavourable local positions, or to avert the inconveniences which may arise at any time during the winter through the formation of ice, with little or no previous warning. Ships passing the canal or arriving from British ports will be at all times liable to be surprised and blocked in the Elbe and Weser.

Freights.

To the foregoing disadvantages, which affect our rivals in relation to ourselves, should be added that freights to Copenhagen from transatlantic places, or from the Mediterranean, are no higher than to Bremen and Hamburg; even from England, during a good portion of the year, they are very little higher. other hand, freights from Copenhagen to Baltic ports, even after the canal is opened, will be lower than from Hamburg or Bremen, and the same will hold good for freights to Norway and West Sweden. Granted that Hamburg and Bremen possess direct railway communication with the German and Russian Baltic ports, the great importance attached, in spite of its many obvious inconveniences, to the new canal shows the preference which is universally felt for a waterway, and our own sea route to the Baltic must remain the best waterway of any. By the establishment of a steam ferry from Copenhagen free harbour to Malmö, we can at least secure direct railway communication with Sweden and Norway, by the help of which and, above all, of a really convenient and attractive free harbour, we may make a "vast continent" for ourselves out of these countries combined with the Russian and German Baltic provinces.

Passenger, &c., steamers freights. A distinction must be drawn in the matter of freights between those of the regular lines of steamships and those of independent vessels. For regular liners a small increase of distance is as nothing compared with loss of time in harbour; consequently, not only our national shipping companies, but those of foreign nations, will charge lower freights to Copenhagen than to other ports, as soon as we can offer them greater convenience and expedition than the others have to supply, joined to our natural advantages of situation, freedom from tidal influences, &c.

General freights. In general freights from transatlantic places are from 2s. 6d. to 5s. a ton higher to Bergen, Gothenburg, and Copenhagen, than to Great Britain and the Continent, viâ Havre and Hamburg.

Should the free harbour of Copenhagen become a general place of unloading for goods from across the Atlantic, freights thither will undoubtedly sink to the level of those to Great Britain and the Continent.

That distance is far from being the only consideration in the fixing of freights may be seen from the timber freights between the Baltic and England. The distances to the Firth of Forth, to Hull, or to Yarmouth, for instance, from the Baltic are nearly the same; yet freights to Hull are, as a rule, 10 per cent. higher, and to Yarmouth 20 per cent. higher than to ports in the Firth of

Forth, while freights to Swansea and Cardiff are no higher than to places on the east coast, in spite of the great difference in distance. The reasons for the above are: (1) that shipping expenses are greater at Hull than in the Firth; (2) that while from those two places return cargoes may be obtained, there are none to be found at Yarmouth; (3) that from Cardiff and Swansea there is an important export trade across the ocean.

What is required for Copenhagen, therefore, is small port expenses, removal of obstacles to rapid transactions, and, if possible, the development in our free port of an export trade which can furnish return cargoes, entire or in part; under those conditions transatlantic shippers will gladly reduce freights for Copenhagen to the same amount as that charged for England and

the Continent.

As most cargoes shipped from transatlantic ports are sold while affoat, the freighters have an interest in multiplying the ports of unlading amongst which choice can be made; and the more the chances of sale at Copenhagen increase, the more often that port will be included in the list of those in respect of which no extra charge for freight will be made.

Many merchants, it may be presumed, will in time prefer to despatch their winter cargoes by way of Copenhagen, rather than by Hamburg and Bremen, because in case of the canal being blocked by ice, as must very often happen, the railway service to Lubeck will no longer meet there with so many steamship lines as at present exist, and the Copenhagen route will therefore afford a saving both of time and money.

### IV .- Conditions under which Copenhagen can most Profit by a Free Harbour.

Copenhagen even now enjoys steamship communication with Steamship almost every one of the Baltic ports, with West Sweden and communica-Norway, with the most important European places, and with North America. The establishment of a line to South America has long been designed, and only delayed through an accidental More lines could be instituted with advantage circumstance. were the harbour improved. We further enjoy the passing traffic, which hardly exists for Hamburg and Bremen. Lines of steamers. for example, from Cronstadt or other Baltic ports bound for South America would be likely to utilise a free harbour at Copenhagen for coaling, victualling, change of cargo, &c., to such an extent as to benefit us nearly as much as if the vessels started from Denmark itself.

But to make the utmost of such opportunities, the grand Capital and desideratum is a mercantile body gifted with the necessary capital energy and energy. The question then is: Have we this already, or are needful. we on the way to acquire such?

There is no reason why the Danish merchant should not possess equally good moral and material capabilities with, say, the German merchant. Unfortunately his training is generally

deficient, and his self-confidence consequently small. If, however, we can but get rid of the impediments which now harass us there is no doubt but that the right stamp of men will appear. Those who shake their heads over this prospect should on no account be listened to.

Help from abroad.

If our material, in this respect, should be scanty at the outset, it should be remembered that trade and industry are international in their essence. Once we can set the ball rolling, help will come to us from elsewhere. Foreign industry and intelligence will soon mark the apportunity, and, by their efforts to profit by the advantages we offer, will effectually add to them. Applications from foreign firms have already been received to he the first to share in the benefits of the projected free port. To refuse such would be sheer folly. Even mighty England does not disdain to profit by the assistance of the foreigner: he is at liberty to come at will and make the most of the advantages he finds on English soil, without the smallest preliminary formality. In Germany, again, a foreigner needs but a certificate of origin, to guard against his falling to the public charge, in order to obtain permission to set up a business. In both countries he is free to depart again with all his gains; the country in which he has worked will not fail to have profited by his activity and success.

We shall, accordingly, be able to learn from and follow the example of these foreigners to our great advantage. With them, also, and even to a greater extent, capital will make its presence felt; given an opportunity of fructifying, and it will flow in from all sides.

One good influence of the free harbour will be to facilitate the circulation of capital, and so increase its working power. It will, for instance, encourage the institution of warrants, which are so much employed and valued abroad for the simplification of business transactions. Attempts have been made to introduce them here, for example, by the law of December 4, 1863, which aimed at rendering possible the exchange, grant of advances, insurance, &c., of goods stored in free docks or warehouses upon the faith of certificates to be issued by the Government, which law, however, has remained a dead letter. Another law. establishing a system of warrants, was passed on February 23, 1866, but lapsed after a short trial, owing to the assertion by the customs authorities of a prior claim for satisfaction of duties owing by the person warehousing, not merely in respect of the goods named in the warrant, but also of all goods imported by him. It might, therefore, happen that the amount of duty owing exceeded the value of the goods, and the warrants became

The foregoing is another example of the pernicious influence of the customs system, and of the necessity of freeing goods from it. In a free harbour no such prior claim could be ascerted, and the useful institution of warrants could be successfully introduced.

Capital.

### V.—The Business of a Free Port.

An example or two may be given here of the loss of trade caused for us by the want of a free harbour. Take, for instance, saltpetre, which pays a duty (except when used for manuring). Saltpetre. We do not use enough of it to import whole shiploads direct from South America; these go, therefore, to Hamburg, London, or other free ports, are there divided, and distributed. Had we a free port the distribution could take place here, we should save the Hamburg charges for ourselves, reap the benefit here, and secure freights for our vessels. The reason why freights, for instance, from Sweden to Lubcck are lower than to Copenhagen is that vessels there have a better chance of return cargoes. we take an original shipload of 1,000 tons, of which 300 only are required here, under present circumstances only 300 tons enter our harbour; with a free harbour, 1,000 would enter and 700 go out, leaving a profit to the port nearly six times as great.

A large business in train oil is carried on at Hamburg, chiefly Train oil. from Norwegian and Russian ports. The train til is prepared there and adapted to all requirements, very little remaining in Germany itself. Our customs duties restrict us to dealing with train oil imported from our own colonies and dependencies. Our vessels thereby lose freight, and the whole trade falls into Ham-

burg hands.

These two articles may in time be freed from duty, but this will be insufficient unless accompanied by harbour reform. Take, again, the wine trade, which can never be so freed. A great wine Wine. business, where wines from all parts of the world can be stored. blended, and otherwise prepared to suit the tastes of the Baltic markets, can only be carried on with the help of a free harbour. Such a trade would be invaluable for our steamship companies, and might open up an issue for our own fruit wines.

For this purpose, however, it is necessary that customs operations should be limited to those articles really concerned. i.e. which are actually imported for consumption in the country.

A free harbour will thus both encourage and facilitate existing branches of trade, and also create and develop new ones. If trade can find so great an advantage in a free port, industry will do so in no less a degree. The mere return of duties, we repeat, upon the re-exported materials of manufactured goods can never cover the original outlay.

One great source of profit at Hamburg lies in the preparation of Russian spirit for re-export. How far more natural it would be, were other conditions the same, that this business should be

carried on at Copenhagen!

During the negotiations attending the entry of Hamburg into the Customs Union, one of the principal firms there expressed themselves as follows upon this subject :-

"Since the abolition of the excise duty upon spirit, our business has increased so much that but a small proportion of our turn-out is consumed in the country. Our position at a free port

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has alone sufficed to lend this importance to our trade with Great Britain, France, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and several transatlantic places. Even if a return of duties were possible to be made, the waste of time involved would prevent prompt attention to foreign customers: orders, for instance, received to no matter what extent from England or France are expected to be executed within 24 hours. As it is, scarcely a ship leaves Hamburg for transatlantic ports without carrying considerable quantities of prepared spirits (Geneva, liqueurs, &c.)."

Another large firm declares that the trade in train-oil would be entirely ruined by the inclusion of the port of Hamburg in

the Customs Union.

The same opinion was expressed by other firms with respect to the transit trade in the direction of Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Russia. The drug trade to Russia, Austria, Switzerland, Italy, France, and Holland was greater even than to Germany itself, some portion even going to transatlantic places; but it would be impossible without a free harbour. The same was said in regard to coffee and tea.

Over and over again the free port was quoted as the principal

source of the mercantile greatness of Hamburg.

Although the duty on cigars was considerably higher than on raw tobacco, and it would consequently have been apparently advantageous for cigar dealers at the port to be included in the Customs Union, they nevertheless gave their unqualified adhesion to the maintenance of its freedom, being prepared to sacrifice their inland market.

Several more instances are given of branches of trade which are almost monopolised by Hamburg by reason of her free port.

It is plain from the foregoing that a well-ordered free harbour at Copenhagen will readily acquire an extensive and exceedingly

varied export industry.

As specially suited to our circumstances, we may mention carving works, upholsteries, carriage factories, instrument factories, tinplate factories (especially for packing export wares and lacquering imported tinware for re-export, a business largely carried on at Hamburg, chiefly with English tinware), ready-made clothing businesses, including hats and boots; spirit factories, based on the rectification of foreign raw spirit; soaperies and perfumeries, cigar and tobacco businesses, chocolate factories, factories of cakes and biscuits, liqueurs, candies, and preserves. Though fresh goods will naturally form the backbone of our trade in garden produce, there will always remain a profitable field for preserved fruits, &c., which are exempt from the risks inseparable from the export of the fresh article. A good market may be looked for in England. At present the trade is impossible for us, owing to the fact that sugar and spices are liable to a tax sometimes exceeding 100 per cent. of the value.

While this tax is maintained, such a trade would perforce be confined to the precincts of the free harbour, the institution of which would in this light appear a simple act of justice

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Possible branches of trade for Copenhagen free barbour. towards our garden produce, the export of which would thereby

be rendered practicable.

Without attempting further to lay down all the possible industries, which may be accommodated in our future free harbour, let us inquire what industries have actually established themselves within the precincts of the Hamburg free port since the town entered the Customs Union in October, 1888; it being remembered that the Hamburg system for the return of duties on re-exported goods is far better ordered and more practical Nevertheless, in this short period, the following establishments have arisen:---

(1) Two large shipwharves and several smaller ones; (2) two large spirit factories; (3) one large ricemill; (4) one copper smelting and rolling shed; (5) three large Geneva distilleries; (6) one factory of chemicals; (7) two factories with storehouses for Russian butter-oil; (8) a quantity of smaller industries of different kinds.

To develop our export industry, we must first multiply our Prospects for trade connections and communications, so as in particular to Copenhagen free port.

assert our natural claim to the transit trade between Norway, Sweden, and the Baltic on the one side, and the rest of the world on the other. Much has been done of late years by the efforts of a single Copenhagen firm; but new elements of competition will now make themselves felt with the opening of the North Sea Canal, and Hamburg and Bremen will make fresh efforts to drive us from our natural field of profit, which we could, however, retain, if we chose to make the best of our circumstances. We must, of course, lose the advantage of that considerable quantity of goods, which, exported from Hamburg and Bremen, either by ship round the Skaw, or else by train to Lubeck, have hitherto been sent to Copenhagen to be reshipped for the Baltic, and even for German ports, such as Dantzic and Königsberg. At Lubeck itself they are prepared for the loss of this branch of trade, and are taking measures to counteract it. We must by all means multiply our communications by means of lines of steamships; we must, in fact, fight with Hamburg by putting ourselves in direct connection with all places beyond seas which send goods to our "continent" (Sweden and Norway and the Baltic), and which receive goods from it. We must free ourselves from our dependence upon Hamburg, as we have done, for instance, in respect of the export of pork to England. Freights from Copenhagen to Baltic ports, Norway, and Sweden, must necessarily be lower than from Hamburg; and freights to Copenhagen from transatlantic places should not be any higher than to Hamburg. Again, the expenses of our free harbour should not exceed one-tenth of those of Hamburg, with all its enormous yearly outlay in keeping its waterway clear and practicable.

The day following the opening of the North Sea Canal, fast Immediate steamship lines will be established between Hamburg and the action Baltic, and Copenhagen will cease to be a link in that trade route. necessary. Our loss will accordingly begin at once, and any measures which

we may hit upon to counterbalance it will take a long time to set on foot. Our best and only resource is to establish a free harbour, and anybody who puts obstacles and delays in the way of that undertaking will incur a heavy responsibility.

### VI.—Distribution and Size of the Free Harbour.

The free harbour should above all be convenient and cheap. It should be easy of access, both by day and by night, so that passing vessels may not hesitate to avail themselves of it. There should be abundance of quay room, so that none need wait; there should be suitable machinery for lading and unlading, and direct and easy communication with the warehouses.

The borders of the harbour basins should just be large enough for the above purposes, and no more. The warehouses, &c., should be built along the quays, separated from them only by the lines serving the steam cranes. They should be roomy, and on their further side directly adjoin the railway, so as to facilitate the

transport of goods to and from the wagons.

Connection of sfree port with the urrounding ountry.

As before remarked, a free port, as such, has to do only with transit trade, and not with the country's regular imports and exports. This by no means implies that the latter are to be excluded from using the free harbour. Most cargoes contain imported or exported goods destined for or issuing from this country itself, mixed with imports intended for re-exportation, or exports previously imported. It would be impossible to separate them, or to make the vessel unload in two different places. Vessels belonging to regular lines, again, often fill up vacant space in their holds with such articles as fodder or corn stuffs, which yield but small profit, can bear therefore only very light charges, and are for the most part sent on into the provinces. A free port consequently should possess easy communication with both home and foreign districts. A goods station close to the free harbour is a sheer necessity, so that the latter may fulfil other purposes besides that of the transit trade, and become, in short, a commercial harbour all The present situation of Copenhagen harbour is as faulty as it is exceptional. The harbour we require is one which can promote our whole commercial existence and develop our transactions, and a free harbour will not only facilitate trade through it from one foreign country to another, but also between home and abroad, and even from one part of the country to another Goods may be stored there without their destination being fixed beforehand, to be sent into the country or re-exported with or without previous processes, as convenience may dictate. The more trade of all sorts passes through the harbour, the more of its varieties it will bring in its train, and the more people will find their livelihoods thereby.

Size of the harbour.

Besides the ordinary business of a harbour and warehouses—packing, unpacking, sorting, &c.—many industries will seek to establish themselves within the limits of the free port, and care should be taken to leave room for them in the enclosure. Accord-

ing to the plan the Copenhagen free harbour will be about onesixteenth the size of that of Hamburg, a very limited scale; and its expansion should be foreseen and provided for.

The surroundings of the proposed site of the free harbour at

Copenhagen are next discussed at length:

One could cite many instances where too small an estimate has been made of our undertakings at their commencement, the result being their ultimate enlargement at an unreasonable cost: among the principal cases being our present harbour, the customs establishments, and the railway accommodation. In spite of considerable forethought, the free harbour at Hamburg is already too small, at the end of two years only. We should, therefore, avoid parsimony now, which may prove highly costly hereafter. Should more land be acquired at first than experience shows to be necessary, it can readily be disposed of for other purposes, but it will be very difficult to extend the harbour after all the surrounding ground has been built upon.

### VII.—Management of the Free Port.

In the Bill laid before the Rigsdag during the last session, it Shall the was proposed to leave the management of the free harbour to a management private company, as is in part the case at Hamburg, while at public or Bremen the warehouses are maintained for the account of the private Government, but leased to a company, bound to pay to the town enterprise? three-fourths of the surplus profit. A third system would be a purely Government management, or, as would be the case here, management by the Harbour Board. The advantage of a private management lies in its greater elasticity and freedom from hard-and-fast rules. It may, however, at times show a tendency to be grasping, as has been the case at Hamburg, where, however, the complaints which arose at one time have been satisfied by surrender of the excessive rates, the precaution having been originally taken to fix them for two years only. Upon the whole, this is the system which would answer best with us, similar precautions being observed to guard against unnecessary or unduly hasty raising of charges.

If the owners of private ground, which may be enclosed within Can private the proposed precincts of the free port, choose to submit to the persons own necessary regulations, there can be no reason why their property property in should not be so comprised therein; otherwise, it must either be the free port? expropriated or fenced off. If they remain, they may be allowed to carry on their private business, so long as these do not interfere with the working of the harbour. Nor would it be reasonable to preclude private individuals from owning reserved warehouses in the harbour enclosure. In view of the concessions enjoyed by the managing company, no undue competition can arise from such

private establishments.



VIII. - Relation of Industries within the Free Port towards the District under Customs Regulations.

This was a disputed question during the debates in the Rigsdag. The Minister of Finance declared that it would not do merely to impose the same duties upon goods produced in the free harbour, and thence sent inland, and upon goods imported directly from abroad. It would be unjust, he said, to favour the industry of the free port above that of the rest of the country, and equally mistaken to place the former at a disadvantage; but one or the other would be unavoidable. His idea was that goods produced in the free port, when they came to be sent inland, should pay duty only on the dutiable raw material imported from abroad and used in their preparation, and not that portion of the ordinary duty which constituted its strictly protective element. On the other hand, of course, goods imported ready-made from abroad into the free harbour, and thence sent inland, would have to pay the regular duty in its entirety.

But such an arrangement would imply the maintenance of the very thing which is meant to be done away with in a free harbour, namely, that customs inquisition and control, without which it would be impossible to determine which portions of a manufactured article should be liable to duty, and which should be exempt. All

the benefit of the institution would thus vanish.

Take an instance in proof. We have already a small but promising export trade in gloves. Supposing the free harbour established, and a glove factory set up within it, having, it may be, its principal market in St. Petersburg. This factory would, probably enough, ply at the same time a trade as middlemen in French gloves destined also for St. Petersburg, and would likewise on occasion send gloves into the country here. The latter would require minute inspection to decide which were French gloves, which were gloves made in the free port from French prepared leather, and which were gloves manufactured on the spot from skins tanned and otherwise treated, also on the spot.

If wine in bottles were to be sent inland from the free port, and if different rates were to be imposed, according as it should have been bottled abroad, or in harbour, or blended with spirit, at one time imported, at another distilled within the limits of the port, the vexations attendant on the customs inquiry would render

the whole transaction impracticable.

In like manner a weaving establishment would be precluded from sending its produce into the inland country, were it bound to pay duty according as the thread was spun within the grounds of the free harbour, or imported ready made from abroad, &c.

In short, the intrusion of customs control into the free harbour would nullify all its value, just as in the case of the warrants, as

It remains, then, that all goods imported into the country from the free harbour must be subjected to just the same duties as those imported from abroad. In other words, for customs purposes the free harbour must be regarded absolutely as a slice of foreign territory. The inconveniences pointed out by the Finance Minister may be shown to be in part purely illusory, and in part susceptible of compensation in quite a different manner.

It is evident that the industry of a free harbour, which designedly renounces the assistance of a protective tariff, has no right to complain of the situation thus made for itself in its relation to competitors on the mainland. Its own main natural object is the foreign trade. At the same time, it is not precluded. from seeking an additional market in the country itself, putting up with the disadvantages incidental to its position, and making the most of the benefit enjoyed through the duty-free importation. of raw material, &c. The advantages of a free port and of a. protective tariff cannot be claimed at one and the same time; choice must be made between them. A single individual is free, however, to carry on two businesses—one inside and the other outside of the harbour precincts—and he may pay the ordinary duties upon goods brought out of the harbour, and also claim return of duties upon goods passing from the protected country into the harbour. On the side of the industry of the free harbour. therefore, any complaint of the kind must be ill-founded.

But it is otherwise with the grievance of the inland industry, which lies in the allegation that the duty on such-and-such a ready-made article is smaller than the combined duties on the raw materials used in its manufacture. The free harbour industrials, it is pointed out, obtain the latter without toll, and pay duty on

the finished article alone.

Our present tariff, no doubt, affords such instances. various substances, for example, used in the manufacture of artificial manures are liable to duty, while the manure itself is exempt. A manure factory situated within the harbour would consequently enjoy a superiority over one established in the customs district; but so would also a similar manufacture established just across the Sound at Landscrona. The fault is in our absurd tariff, which gives such an advantage to our foreign. neighbours over our own industrials. It would be no gain were the same advantage merely denied to the free port; the one thing to do is to improve the position of the inland manufacturer. the grounds for the second complaint foreseen by the Finance Minister would in this manner vanish. The same treatment would operate as a cure in the case of every similar grievance advanced by the inland manufacturer, so long as identical duties are charged upon goods imported from the free harbour and from abroad. The simple rule is again that the free port should be

Should it be found that any particular industry, owing to a peculiarity in its circumstances, would obtain by its position within the free port an advantage over a similar industry established outside, and should it be impossible or undesirable to obviate this state of things by an alteration in the tariff, the simple course will be to forbid the establishment of that particular (1002)

treated in every respect as a slice of foreign territory.

business within the precincts. Such a case might occur with respect to the printing of books, advertisements, &c.

Duties on goods consumed within the port. Another question, raised in the debates, was as to the imposition of or exemption from duties in the cases of goods consumed within the port. This is a very minor point, neither new nor in point of fact unauswered, and already in practice in many places. Nobody can desire to tax the provisions actually consumed upon a ship arrived in the harbour from abroad, whether by the crew themselves or by the men engaged in unloading, &c., nor again the corn, hay, &c., consumed by the horses. The most rational solution of the trifling difficulty would be to demand payment of a license from the provision dealers established within the port, which would counterbalance any small advantage which they might otherwise obtain over their brethren in the country.

### IX .- Importance for Denmark of the Free Harbour.

It appears from the census returns of 1890 that the increase of the population of Denmark from 1880 to 1889 amounted to about 200,000 persons. It is also clear that agriculture cannot suffice to furnish a livelihood for this growing population, however carefully its resources may be developed. crease in the country population during the same time was only 3,000. The remainder, therefore, must look elsewhere for their bread, and when trade, industry, and navigation can occupy no more, nothing is left for them but emigration. From 1870 to 1879 about 36,000 persons emigrated; from 1880 to 1889 about 77,00, or nearly double the first number, and this not so much in consequence of the increase of attractions abroad as of hardships at home. Those attractions, on the contrary, are daily diminishing, and the responsibility for finding food for our children becomes daily a more pressing anxiety. Agriculture, as a resource, is limited by the extent of territory, and by the number of hands which can be employed in it, but trade and navigation can be developed indefinitely through the removal of hindrances and the nurture of our resources. The whole world lies open to us, given only the raw materials, the working power, and the personal energy to keep pace with our rivals. Raw materials, or, at least, the most important of them, are to be as easily and cheaply procured at Copenhagen as elsewhere. Coal, iron, timber, cotton, wool, corn, spirits, &c., ought to be no dearer to obtain at Copenhagen than at London, Hamburg, Stettin, or any other neighbouring centre of competition. We have plenty of working power, if we do not force it to emigrate; for personal energy we must ourselves answer.

In the period between 1880 and 1889, Copenhagen added to its population over 100,000 persons, or about two-fitths of the growth of the whole number of the country's inhabitants. Our chances of maintaining this population, in view of the opening of the North Sea Canal, are growing less bright every day. If we

do not desire to see emigration assume enormous proportions, we must so develop our trade, industry, and navigation as to enable our children to compete all over the world with those who have hitherto been our masters, and from whom it is our plain duty to learn our deficiencies.

The free port will not benefit Copenhagen and its industry alone, nor at the expense of the provinces; it will simply enable

a fight to be made against foreign competition.

The more advantageously the Copenhagen merchant can purchase his goods, the more cheaply will he dispose of them in the country. The more he multiplies his connections abroad, the better he will be able to find a sale there for our home produce, the demand for which will grow with the growing consumption in Copenhagen itself.

From a national point of view, it is excessively important that Copenhagen should be regarded as the real mercantile centre of the kingdom, and that Danish trade should never again, as was more or less the case from 1813 to 1864, remain in the hands of

the foreigner.

### Mr. MacDonell to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Copenhagen, November 11, 1890.

With reference to my despatch of the 8th instant, I have now the honour to report that the promised Bill for the institution of a free harbour at Copenhagen was laid before the Folkething on

the 10th instant.

This Bill, which, as anticipated, has undergone considerable alterations since its previous appearance, proposes to create, under the supervision of the Harbour Board, in the western portion of the existing port, a free harbour, with a piece of land adjoining, which, in respect of customs and excise, shall be considered as foreign territory. Railway communication is to be established between the new harbour and the North Zealand Railway Station, as well with the custom-house premises.

Certain industries (such as printing establishments and manufactories of artificial manures) will be excluded from the general privileges of the free harbour, special rates of duties

being applicable to their inland business.

All port dues are to be abolished so soon as the free harbour

shall be in complete working order.

The management and working of the free harbour are to be confided, for a term of 80 years, to a company, the formation of which is to be conceded to the Landmands Bank of Copenhagen, which has tendered for the same, the amount of capital to be 4,000,000 kroner (200,000*l*).

I will not fail to keep your lord-hip acquainted with the

ulterior progress of this measure in the Rigsdag.

I have, &c.
(Signed) H. G. MACDONELL.

### Mr. Mac Donell to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Copenhagen, November 24, 1890.

With reference to my despatch of the 11th instant, I have the honour to report that the Bill for the creation of a free harbour at Copenhagen was read a second time in the Folkething, on the 22nd instant, and thereafter referred to a Committee.

The tone of the discussion on the occasion was very favour-

able to the measure.

(Signed) H. G. MACDONELL.

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### DENMARK.

### COPENHAGEN.

Mr. Mac Ponell to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Copenhagen, October 31, 1890.

In forwarding to your Lordship herewith a letter, which has been addressed to me by Mr. Goschen, Secretary of this Legation, and which encloses a Report drawn up by him upon State Insurance in Denmark, including an account of the

State Insurance in Denmark, including an account of the system by which provision is made for the maintenance of the widows of officials in the service of the State, I desire to bear testimony to the care and attention bestowed upon the said Report which in my judgment reflects much credit upon Mr. Goschen.

I make no doubt that the information, now for the first time transmitted to Her Majesty's Government, will prove highly interesting and valuable.

I have, &c.

(Signed) H. G. MACDONELL.

### Mr. Goschen to the Marquis of Salisbury.

Sir, Copenhagen, October 30, 1890.

I have the honour to enclose herewith, for transmission to Her Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, a report which I have drawn up upon the System of State Insurance in Denmark, including an account of the manner in which provision is made for the maintenance of widows of officials in the service of the Government.

In drawing up this report I have, as you will perceive, confined myself to furnishing a sketch of the history of the Danish State Insurance Institution, and to indicating, as far as lay in my power, the reasons for its early failures and the causes which

appear to have led to its present prosperous position.

I have not ventured to go further into the subject, as my experience in such matters does not entitle me to discuss the capabilities of such a scheme, or to advance an opinion as to whether the system of State Insurance, which has proved so eminently successful in Denmark, would be equally applicable to a wealthier and more densely-populated country, where, moreover, encroachments by the State upon the field of private enterprise might perhaps be regarded with a jealous eye.

I have, &c. (Signed) W. E. GOSCHEN.

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**A** 2

Report upon State Insurance in Denmark, including an Account of the Provision made for the Maintenance of the Widows of Government Officials.

The system under which every Government official in Denmark, civil, naval, or military, is compelled by law to devote a certain portion of his salary to making a suitable provision for his widow in the event of his death, may be said to have been inaugurated in 1740. In the previous year an institution, on the same principle, called the "Widow Fund," had been started, but it had been confined to the army, and it was only in 1740 that it was extended to all Government officials.

Although the system, as put in force at that date, remained more or less unchanged for 35 years it was anything but a success. The regulations were too lenient, and the contributions from the salaries set at too low a figure, so that the institution, which was intended to be self-supporting, failed to pay its way, and became on the contrary a burden on the State. As an instance of the causes which led to its failure it may be mentioned that, in fixing the amount of the contributions to the fund, no restriction was made as regards the age either of the contributor or of his wife. Thus an old man on the verge of the grave was not called upon to pay more than a man in the prime of life, though, at his death, an annuity of the same amount was at the disposal of his widow. Again, the contribution of a widower who married again was reduced by one-half, although at his death no corresponding reduction was made in the annuity received by his widow. and other miscalculations rendered the institution so expensive, that it was found absolutely necessary to effect radical changes in the system in order to relieve the heavy tax that it laid upon the Royal Treasury.

These changes were made in the year 1775, when the whole system was revised and new and severer regulations were issued.

According to the new plan every Official, married or single, was compelled, on entering the service of the Crown, to pay into the Widow Fund his first month's salary, and, on subsequent promotion to a higher rank and salary, the difference between the two rates of pay for the first month in his new rank. This contribution was intended to form the nucleus of the fund out of which the widows' annuities were to be paid, but in the case of a married man its payment did not entitle him to an annuity for his widow, but only, so to speak, made him a member of the institution, and gave him the right to purchase such an annuity at a certain rate laid down in the regulations.

Under these regulations, however, as long as an Official paid the necessary contribution of his first month's salary, it was left to his option whether he should purchase an annuity for his widow or not; and so few availed themselves of their right to dc so that the object of the institution was not attained, and the system again seemed destined to failure.

It was, therefore, thought necessary to revise the rules once

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1775.

more, with the result that in 1788 new regulations were issued of 1788. a far more stringent character. By these regulations it was made compulsory for every married Official not only to contribute his first month's salary, as under the previous rules, but also to purchase an annuity for his widow of from 40 to 800 kroner (21. 5s. to 44l.) per annum, according to his rank and salary. Further, no Official could get married before he had so provided for his widow, and any clergyman who married an Official without the production by the latter of a certificate showing that he had fulfilled the regulations was subjected to a fine of 200 kroner (111.). Again, if a man happened to be married before he entered the service of the Crown, it was the duty of the authorities to see that he duly carried out the regulations within a year of his appointment.

The amount of the annuity to be purchased was fixed according to the yearly salary of the purchaser. Thus, an Official with a salary of 400 kroner (221.) had to purchase the largest annuity for his widow that could be purchased, under the tariff of the institution for that sum. If his yearly salary exceeded 400 kroner, he had to contribute the latter amount plus two-thirds of the excess. The highest annuity that could be obtained was 800 kroner (44l.) per annum; but no one was obliged to secure an annuity exceeding the amount representing a fifth part of his

yearly salary.

Under these regulations an Official could only obtain an annuity for his widow; it was not in his power to secure a lump sum for her benefit after his death. Further, it was the rule, as regards the method of payment for these annuities, that the whole of the purchase money, amounting in most cases to a whole year's salary, should be paid up at once. This rule, however, was so hard upon the poorer class of officials that it had to be frequently relaxed, and in special cases they were allowed to pay in 5, 10, or 12 years. Another rule (which holds good at the present time) was to the effect that all payments to the Widow Fund Institution on account of annuities should be levied from the official salary of the purchaser, and could in no case be made from his private fortune.

These regulations as regards widows' annuities remained in force until 1842. But in the meanwhile, in the year 1795, the 1795. first Danish Life Insurance Institution in Denmark was opened to the general public by the Government, under the title of the "Ordinary Provident Society." This Institution was quite distinct from that of the Widow Fund, but it was placed under the management and direction of the administrators of the latter. Owing, however, to the financial crisis which took place in Denmark at that time, it was found impossible to carry out the scheme, and the "Ordinary Provident Society" was closed a year after its inauguration.

During the period between 1788 and 1842 the Widow Fund Institution was carried on under the reformed regulations of 1788; but, although it no doubt attained its object of providing a decent

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competence for the widows of the contributors to the furd, and opreventing the numerous cases of destitution and poverty which had led to its creation, it was at the same time still very far from realising the hope that it would support itself, and it was still found to be a constant drain upon a not too-flourishing exchequer. The system upon which it was worked was, therefore, again (in 1841) subjected to a searching inquiry, which showed that the contributions from the salaries were still set at too low a figure, and that, generally, the whole arrangement was based upon false economical principles. The result of the inquiry was that the payment of the first month's salary was abolished, and the compulsory contributions from the salaries of married Officials were raised 10 per cent.

But in the year 1842 further and more important changes were made.

On March 11 of that year a decree was issued by King Christian VIII. authorising the establishment of an Institution called "The Life Annuity and Provident Institution."

According to this decree the institution was to constitute a separate Government department, under the management of a board of directors, of whom one was always to be an official belonging to the Ministry of Finance, while two were to be financial experts; the latter to be held responsible for the correctness of the calculations of the policies and of the yearly balance-sheet. All the directors were to be appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Finance Minister. The decree further authorised the directors to render the funds of the Institution productive by investing them in Government securities.

But the most important change made under this decree was the introduction of the system of premiums. This measure constituted a great relief to Government officials in view of their obligation to provide for their widows; for they were no longer compelled, as heretofore, to pay a lump sum, amounting in most cases, as has been stated above, to a whole year's salary, for the purchase of an annuity, but were enabled to fulfil their obligation. by the payment of a yearly premium.

The decree in question concluded with the following words:—
"The institution is established under the guarantee of our exchequer, but it is our will that in due time the directors shall report to us as to the best manner in which, according to their judgment, and with the consent of the insurers, the said guarantee may be abolished."

After the promulgation of this decree it was for some time left to the option of Officials to secure annuities for their widows either in the new institution or by means of the Widows' Fund Institution of 1788; but in 1845 it was decided that there should be no more contributions paid into the latter, and the State took over all its funds and liabilities, continuing up to this day to pay the annuities of widows whose husbands had contributed to the fund.

It will be remembered that in 1795 a life insurance society

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1841.

1842.

184

had been established, called the "Ordinary Provident Society," which, after a year's trial, had been closed, owing to financial troubles. By an annex to the above decree of March 11, 1842, an institution of a similar nature, but founded on better economic principles, and more adapted to modern requirements, was opened to the public. It was called the "Copenhagen Life Insurance Institution," and was placed under the management of the directors of the "Life Annuity and Provident Institution."

The annex ran as follows:—

"Since the closing of the Ordinary Provident Society of 1795, the public have had no opportunity of obtaining, individually or otherwise, temporary or whole life insurances, such as were offered to them under various conditions by the said society. The want, however, of such a society is much felt, and as it has been found, after careful inquiry, that the 1795 society cannot, for practical reasons, be reopened under the same conditions, a new society is hereby established, founded on modern principles, and adapted to present requirements.

"This new society, which will commence operations on May 1 next, shall be called The Life Insurance Society of Copenhagen, of 1842, for the Kingdom of Denmark and the Duchies of Schles-

wig-Holstein and Lauenburg."

This society was at first placed under the guarantee of the State for five years, but in 1848 it was placed on the same footing in that respect as the "Life Annuity and Provident Institution," and no period was fixed for the cessation of the State guarantee.

These two Institutions continued in operation until 1871; but in the year 1851 the regulations respecting the obligation of <sup>1</sup> Government officials to secure annuities for their widows were again revised and amended, and promulgated in their new form by an Act passed by the Rigsdag on January 5 of that year.

The provisions of the Act in question are those in force at the present day; it is, therefore, perhaps expedient to give them in

extenso.

They are as follows:-

### ART. I.

All Government officials qualified to receive a pension according to the Pension Law, who are in discharge of their offices or in receipt of a superannuation allowance (half-pay), and shall not have completed their 70th year, shall secure for their widows an annuity for life in the "Life Annuity and Provident Institution," the said annuity to become available for the widows on and from the day of their husbands' death, and to amount to at least one-fifth part of such portion of their salaries as shall be taken into account under the said Pension Law in calculating the amount of their pensions, but not to exceed 1,200 kroner (66l.) per annum.

### ART. II.

The following are excepted from the above obligation:-

1. Officials who at the time of the publication of this Act have

completed their 60th year, and are married.

2. Those who at the time of the publication of this Act have duly secured to their widows the highest annuity or pension under the regulations hitherto in force, viz., 800 kroner (441) per annum. Should, however, the Officials in question subsequently receive an additional allowance of pay, their obligation under the present Act shall take effect as regards the said additional allowance.

3. Those who are in a position to prove to the Ministry of Finance that an annual income, amounting to at least 1,200 kroner

(66L), has otherwise been secured to their widows.

### ART. III.

A clergyman marrying a Government official, qualified for receiving a pension, before the said official has duly proved by a certificate from the Ministry of Finance that he is either excepted from the obligation laid down in the present Act, or that he has complied with the regulations as to providing for his widow, shall be liable to a penalty of 200 kroner, to be paid to the poor of his parish.

### ART. IV.\*

The Ministry of Finance must see that the obligation of Government Officials to provide for their widows is duly carried, and in cases of Officials neglecting to comply with the regulations is authorised to impose a fine upon them through their superior officers.

#### ART. V.

The premiums of the Life Annuity and Provident Society shall be paid one year in advance, and shall be deducted from either the salary or the superannuation allowance of the official concerned.

### ART. VI.†

Should the case arise that a premium, unpaid at the specified date, cannot be recovered in the manner laid down in the preceding clause, the Ministry of Finance is authorised to advance the said premium from the exchequer. This advance shall be recovered, if necessary, by distraint in accordance with the Royal decree of June 2, 1830, on the payment of the usual fee to the king's bailiff. Should the defaulter die before the advance has been recovered, the annuity of his widow shall be withheld until the claim of the exchequer has been settled.

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<sup>\*</sup> This article only refers to officials who, though in the service of the Government, do not receive their salaries directly from the State.

† This article also refers to the class of officials mentioned in the previous note.

### ART. VII.

Should the system laid down in the preceding clause prove inapplicable, or should an Official be discharged from the Government service without a pension or a superannuation allowance, prior to the settlement of his account with the "Life Annuity and Provident Society," the defaulter shall be dealt with under the regulations now in force respecting the non-payment of premiums by voluntary insurers in the same institution.

### ART. VIII.

The "Life Annuity and Provident Institution" shall be bound to insure every Government Official for the annuity which he is obliged under Clause I. to secure to his widow, on the production by the said Official of a doctor's certificate in due form to the effect that he is in no imminent danger of death.

### ART. IX.

Should an Official have obtained a divorce from his wife his obligation to provide for her after his death shall cease, and he shall be allowed to withdraw from the institution according to the regulations in force for voluntary assurers.

If the marriage should be dissolved by mutual consent the stipulations of the deed of separation shall decide as to whether the obligation shall cease. If this is not actually stated in the deed the obligation shall continue, but its amount shall correspond only to the salary actually received by the husband at the time of the dissolution of the marriage.

#### ART. X.

Should an Official, who has duly secured an annuity for his widow by the payment of a whole life premium, subsequently retire on a pension, the amount of his obligation under the present Act shall be fixed in accordance with his pension, and the annuity shall be calculated accordingly.

On the same day that the above Act was published an Act (which is also still in force) for the regulation of pensions and superannuation allowances was also promulgated. The full text of this Act is appended to this report for convenience of reference, but it may be useful to insert here those of its provisions which relate to the widows of Government Officials, as they show that the latter do not entirely depend for their maintenance upon their annuities, but are also granted a pension, calculated according to the salaries or pensions of their deceased husbands.

### ART. XI.

Except in certain cases mentioned in the following Article (XII.), widows, whose deceased husbands were either qualified to

receive pensions, or actually in receipt of pensions at the time of

their deaths, shall be granted a pension from the State.

A widow's pension shall amount to one-eighth of the last salary of her deceased husband, provided always that it does not exceed the sum of 1,200 kroner (66*l*.), and is not greater than the pension which her deceased husband was receiving at the time of his death.

In special cases the Crown may grant an annual allowance of from 20 to 100 kroner (1l. 2s. to 5l. 10s.) to each of the widow's children who are not otherwise provided for until their 18th year, provided that satisfactory proof be given every year to the Minister of Finance that the necessity for granting this allowance continues to exist.

### ART. XII.

A widow is disqualified from receiving a pension-

1. If her husband was over 60 years of age, or on his deathbed, at the time of the marriage.

2. If her husband was already in receipt of a pension before

the marriage took place.

3. If she had been divorced.

#### ART. XIII.

Widows of Government Officials lose their pensions -

1. If they marry again.

2. If they take up their residence in a foreign country with-

out permission from the Crown.

8. If they neglect to draw their pensions during three consecutive years without subsequently producing legal proof to show the cause of such neglect.

4. If they are found guilty of crime.

A pension which has been withdrawn from a widow on her marrying again shall be renewed on her becoming again a widow.

Thus from 1842 there had been two Institutions under the management of the same board of directors appointed by the Crown, and both under the guarantee of the State, viz.:—The Life Annuity and Provident Institution and the Life Insurance Society of Copenhagen, the former open to the public for the purchase of annuities and the latter for ordinary life insurance.

These Institutions were carried on in their dual form for some years; but it was gradually perceived that they failed to attract as many supporters from the lower classes as they were expected

to do.

The reasons for their comparative failure in this respect were found, on inquiry, to be:-

1. That no premiums could be paid for less time than a year.

2. That the insurance money was only paid three months after the death of the insurer.

3. The severity of the medical certificate.

With a view to remedy this state of things, the Government 1867. brought forward in 1867 a scheme for a third Institution, to be under the same management as the others, but intended only for the use of the poorer classes. But the scheme, which was based upon the abolition of three above-mentioned restrictive regulations, was rejected by the Rigsdag. The Government, however, still continued to consider the subject, and in 1870 succeeded in 1870. passing a Bill abolishing the two institutions of 1842, and establishing in their place a new institution entitled "The Life Insurance and Provident Society of 1871," with a revised tariff and special facilities for the poorer classes.

This institution took over all the claims, rights, and liabilities of the two old establishments, with the understanding that the capital and premiums of the "Life Insurance Society of Copenhagen" should be kept separate until the time should arrive when all the insurances for which it was liable should be paid off.

The new institution was under the guarantee of the State,

with its capital independent of the exchequer.

The Act under which the Institution was inaugurated provided that the rules of 1851, respecting the obligation of Government officials to provide for their widows, should remain in force, the only important change under the new Act being that thence-forward Officials were given the option of discharging their obligation either by the purchase of an annuity, as before, or by insuring their lives for a sum not less than 15 times the amount of the annuity that they were obliged to purchase under the Act of 1851. In the latter case they were placed on the same footing as the general public, and had to submit to the same terms and conditions.

The institution established in 1871 is the one in existence now, and, since its inauguration, there has been no change worth

mentioning in the system of its management.

It may be mentioned that, although Officials have had since 1871 the option of either purchasing an annuity for their widows, or of insuring their lives in their favour, they, as a rule, prefer the first-named method of discharging their obligation. In the first place, the purchase of an annuity is the cheaper proceeding; secondly, the only medical certificate required on applying for an annuity is one to the effect that the applicant is in no immediate danger of death, that is to say, actually dying. Thus, a man may be suffering from the worst form of consumption, or any other incurable disease, and it may be perfectly well known that his death is only a question of months, or even weeks, still, unless he is actually on his death-bed, the institution is bound to accept his premiums at the rate laid down by the regulations, and, on his death, to provide the corresponding annuity to his widow. In fact, there is a case on record of the widow of an Official receiving an annuity, though her husband had contributed absolutely nothing to the Institution; the authorities had, by some oversight, neglected to see that he carried out the regulations on his appointment, and, on his dying suddenly before he had done an the Institution was held liable for the annuity.



On the other hand, an Official who chooses to insure his life in the institution for the benefit of his widow has to submit to the usual medical examination, and produce the ordinary certificate of health required from voluntary insurers.

Notwithstanding these comparative disadvantages, there are a considerable number of Officials, more especially those who are fairly well-to-do, who choose the insurance system for providing for their widows. It is, as stated above, the more costly proceeding, but it has its contingent advantages, particularly in the case of those who have not only a wife, but also children to provide for. An annuity necessarily ceases from the moment the widow dies, and nothing is left for the children; whereas, in the case of insurance, the capital of the sum assured is, at the death of the insurer, placed in the hands of the Minister of Finance, who invests it in Government securities, and pays the interest to the widow during her life. At her death the capital is handed over to her children, if she has any, or, in the case of there being no issue, to the next of kin.

There is moreover a further advantage gained by an Official in adopting the insurance system. If his wife predeceases him and he marries again, his second wife is entitled, at his death, to the interest of the sum for which he originally insured his life, without his having been put to any further expense beyond the payment of the stipulated premiums. If, on the other hand, he had adopted the annuity system, he would be obliged under the same circumstances to purchase a new annuity for his second wife, and all the money he had spent in providing for his first wife would have been absolutely thrown away, as far as he was concerned.

This, it may be mentioned, happens in any case under the annuity system, if the wife predeceases the husband and the latter remains a widower.

I have endeavoured in the foregoing pages to give a sketch of the growth of the present State Insurance Institution in this country. It now only remains to be considered how the system of voluntary and compulsory State insurance has worked, and how far success has attended the disinterested efforts of the Government to offer to its servants and the public facilities for life insurance and the purchase of annuities on terms as favourable and as free from restriction as those offered by private companies, and on the unimpeachable security of its own guarantee.

Since its inauguration, in 1871, the present Institution\* has not cost the State anything; it has been entirely self-supporting, and all its working expenses have been defrayed out of its own funds by a small percentage levied on the premiums; its capital has increased year by year, and amounted at the end of 1889 to 61,000,000 kroner (about 3,400,000l.); while the efficiency of its system with regard to the compulsory provision for the widows of Government officials is proved by the fact that painful cases of actual destitution, among the widows of men, who have died in

<sup>\*</sup> This may also be said of the two institutions of 1842.

the service of their country, such as must occasionally occur in our own and other countries where no such system exists, are

practically unknown in Denmark.

In conducting its Life Insurance Institution the State naturally labours under certain disabilities. It cannot advertise, and it is not allowed to establish agencies in the capital, in which matters it is placed at a considerable disadvantage compared to private companies; but, notwithstanding these and other difficulties, the present State Institution can fairly be said to hold its own with its numerous competitors, and the Government has every reason to be satisfied with its financial position.

The best proof of the excellent results that the institution of 1871 has achieved, is that at the last quinquennial valuation in 1885 it was found that, over and above the capital necessary for the working of the establishment and for the discharge of its liabilities, and after the deduction of an ample reserve fund, and of a considerable sum to meet the falling rate of interest on Government securities, there remained at its disposal the sum of 4,500,000 kroner (about 250,0001.). This gratifying result was due to the rate of mortality being considerably more in favour of the Institution than had been reckoned upon, and, more especially, to the fact that in making the tariffs the directors had calculated upon receiving an interest of 4 per cent. on their invested capital, whereas they had actually received 4½ per cent. up to the year 1885.

The disposal of this surplus was much discussed. It was at first proposed that it should remain in the hands of the institution, and that the tariffs should be lowered, on the principle that the premiums of a State insurance institution should be fixed at the cheapest rate possible; but as there was no security that such favourable conditions would continue, and as it was strongly urged that such a measure would only benefit recent and future insurers, and would be of little and, in some cases, no advantage to those by whom the surplus had been chiefly created, the idea was dropped, and it was considered more advisable to distribute the 4,500,000 kroner (250,0001.) as a bonus. A Bill to that effect was accordingly brought in by the Government, and passed by the Rigsdag.

The distribution was effected as follows:—

A hypothetical tariff was drawn up based upon the known rate of mortality between 1842 and 1885, and upon a supposed rate of interest of 3½ per cent. on the invested capital.

The premiums calculated according to this hypothetical tariff were then compared with those paid under the actual tariff, and the amount which, according to this calculation, had been paid in excess under the latter since 1871 was refunded to holders of insurance policies in the Institution from that date.

Holders of policies in the two Institutions of 1842 also received a share in the bonus; but their share was only calculated

on the premiums they had paid since 1871.

Of these 4,500,000 kroner about 1,000,000 fell to the share of those Officials who had purchased compulsory annuities

in the Institution since 1871, while those who had provided for their widows by insurance were placed, as regards the bonus, on the same footing as voluntary insurers.

The history of State insurance in Denmark would be hardly complete without a few words respecting the working expenses of the present institution and the fund out of which they are

The establishment consists of a committee of five directors, of whom one is the managing director, four chefs de bureau, a medical officer, 32 assistant and junior clerks, and three or four messengers.

The above form the regular staff of the institution, and are paid by fixed salaries, amounting collectively to between 40,000 kroner (about 2,200l.) and 50,000 kroner (about 2,750l.), and also by commissions on the receipts of the Institution.

The other working expenses consist of fees to legal advisers, fees to physicians, provincial agencies, pensions to old employés and servants, house rent, office expenses, and a few other unimportant items.

These expenses are defrayed out of what is called the administration fund, which is derived from the following three sources:—1st, a tax of from 1 to 2 kroner on every policy effected in the institution; 2nd, a small percentage on the premiums; 3rd, the interest of its own capital invested in Government securities.

An idea of the expenses of the establishment and of the working of the administration fund can best be gathered from the following table, which is a statement of the office accounts of the institution for the year 1889.

ADMINISTRATION Accounts of Life Insurance and Provident Institution for 1889.

### RECEIPTS.

			Currenc	y.	Sterling.
Dalaman of administration	. :		Kroner	ore.	£
Balance of administration January 1, 1889 Receipts for the said fund d		. ••	<b>2,2</b> 05,878	19	122,548
Policy tax Percentage on premium Interest on its capital	2,979 00 261,032 30 88,235 13				
	352,246 43	••	352,246	48	19,569
Total	′	••	2,558,124	62	142,117
Expenses during 1889 (as be	olow)	• • 1	208,459	91	11,581
Balance of administration ber 31, 1889	fund on De	cem-	2,849,664	71	180,587

#### COPENHAGEN.

#### EXPENDITURE.

					Currence	Sterling	
				-	Kroner	ore.	£
Fixed salaries of staff	••	• •	• •		47,600	00	2,644
Commissions for ,,	••	••	• •		67,244	23	3,787
Legal and technical as	sistanc	e, hous	e rent,	and	•		•
office expenses		· • •	••		88,324	53	2,129
Fees to physicians					10,448	00	580
Pensions to old employés and servants				7,965	00	448	
Provincial agencies and their commissions, &c.			&c.	83,973	84	1,887	
Incidental expenses	••	••	••		2,904	81	161
Total ex	penditu	ıre			208,459	91	11,581

Thus, in 1889, the receipts of the administration fund exceeded the working expenses of the establishment by the sum of 143,786 kroner (or nearly 8,000*l.*), leaving on December 1 of that year a balance of 2,349,644 kroner (130,537*l.*), as against 2,205,878 kroner (122,548*l.*) on January 1 of the same year, a result which affords a further proof of the able and efficient manner in which the State Insurance Institution is carried on by the managing committee.

#### THE PENSION ACT.

January 5, 1851.

We, Frederick the Seventh, &c., make known:

The Rigsdag have passed and we have sanctioned the following Act:—

I.

When a person, holding a commission from the king and being paid by the State, is discharged from office, on account of old age, or infirmity of mind or body, or otherwise, for which he is not to be held personally responsible, a pension shall be

granted to him under this Act.

It shall be enacted which persons shall hold a commission from the king, but until it be thus enacted, the regulations hitherto in force shall apply, with the restriction, however, that no office, which hitherto, according to regulations, has not qualified its owner for receiving a pension, shall do so under this Act; and, on the other hand, any person holding any office at the publication of this Act, which, according to the regulations hitherto in force, shall qualify him for receiving a pension, but which shall not qualify him for receiving a pension under this Act, shall still be personally qualified for receiving a pension.

Any person holding office at the Rigsdag or the institutions, the expenses and receipts of which are passed on the budget (the Financial Law), shall likewise be qualified for receiving a

pension.

Any person temporarily appointed shall not be qualified for

a pension.

The local boards shall determine whether their own officers shall receive a pension, and the extent thereof.

#### II.

All pensions shall be paid out of the Public Treasury unless otherwise provided for, according to regulations hitherto in force,

or which shall be provided in future.

The Civil List and the appanages of the Royal House shall defray their own pension respectively. At each succession to the throne or cessation of any of the present appanages, it shall be especially enacted which pension shall be defrayed by the Public Treasury.

#### III.

All pensions shall be computed according to the terms during which any person has served as a Government officer qualified for receiving a pension, and according to the average of his salary and emoluments of office during the five years previous to his discharge, or to the whole term of office, if not exceeding five years; that is to say:—

From	0	to	2	veara'	service shall	qualify	to a pension	of	1-10th of	the	average.
,,	2		4	,			• ,,		2-10th		,,
22	4		7	,			,,		<b>3</b> -10th		"
27	7		10	,	, ,	,	,,		4-10th		n
"	10		20	,	, ,	,	,,,		5-10th		n
**	20		21		,	,	**		31-60th		"
"	21		22		,	,	,,		82-60th		"
**	22		23		,	••	"		<b>8</b> 3-60th <b>84</b> -60th		"
2)	23		24 25			"	"		35.60th		"
27	24 25		26		,	,	"		86-60th		,,
"	26		27	. 1	-	•	,,		87-60th		"
,,	27		28			,	,,		38-60th		"
**	28		29			,,	"		39-60th		"
Over					•	,,	,,		40-60th		"
- 101					,	))	"				••

Any person having completed his 70th year shall be entitled

to claim his discharge with a pension under this Act.

Any Government officer receiving such injury during the discharge of his official duties as to necessitate his retirement from his office, shall always be qualified for receiving a pension

of two-thirds of his salary and emoluments of office.

Any person whose office is abolished shall have the right to claim an allowance of two-thirds of his salary and emoluments of office for five years, provided that he shall accept, when called upon, a suitable appointment with at least the same pay as that of the abolished office. If not appointed to another office within five years he shall be qualified for receiving a pension at the lapse of that time. In computing his subsequent pension, the years during which he received the said allowance shall be reckoned as years of service, but the pension shall be computed according to the amount of his salary and emoluments of office before receiving the said allowance.

If appointed to an inferior post, he shall retain as much of the pension due to him from his superior post as, together with his present salary and emoluments, shall amount to a sum not

exceeding his former salary and emoluments of office.

#### IV.

The salaries and emoluments of office to be taken into consideration in computing any pension or allowance under section 3 are as follows:—

1. Any fixed yearly salary inclusive of any compensation for payments in kind attached to the office, provided that such compensation is represented by a fixed sum.

2. Any personal allowance.

3. Any perquisites, fees, percentages, and similar uncertain receipts authorised by law, such as portions of fines, extra salary, subsistence money, table money, office allowance, and money for the keeping of horses, &c. (excluded), and such payments in kind (residence, land, fuel and candles included) which are expressly appertaining to the office as pay or part of pay. If the total receipts of the office exceed 1,000 rix-dol. (2,000 kroner), one-

third of the amount of the said uncertain receipts and payments

in kind exceeding the above sum shall be deducted.

In fixing the net receipt according to which the pension is to be computed, such money shall be deducted from the gross receipts of the office as may be supposed to be paid for office expenses, travelling, &c., in offices receiving no special allowance for payment of such expenses. Any salaries and emoluments of office computed according to the above regulations, and exceeding 6,000 rix-dol. (12,000 kroner), shall not be taken into account. No pension shall exceed 3,000 rix-dol. (6,000 kroner).

#### ٧.

Any forfeiture of office shall involve loss of qualification for receiving a pension.

#### VI.

It shall be specially enacted whether any person discharged from office on account of irregularities impairing the credit and faith necessary to his position, but not otherwise involving a forfeiture of his office, shall be qualified for receiving a pension.

#### VIL.

Any pension or allowance shall cease to be paid—

1. Altogether or proportionally when the person concerned shall again be appointed to a salaried post.

2. When he shall enter foreign service without leave from the

king.

3. When he shall take up his residence abroad without leave

from the king.

4. When he shall neglect to draw the same during three consecutive years, without afterwards being able to prove the legal cause of this neglect.

5. When he shall be found guilty of any act by which he would have forfeited his office while in function; or when it shall be proved that he has committed a similar offence previous to his discharge from office.

Any person on being appointed to another post after being discharged with a pension shall be qualified for receiving his former pension on being discharged from the latter post.

#### VIII.

Subject to the exceptions mentioned under section 9, any widow of an official qualified for receiving a pension, or being in receipt of a pension, shall be qualified for receiving a pension out of the same exchequer as her husband.

This pension shall amount to one-eighth of the salary of the husband, as computed according to the estimate contained in

sections 3 and 4 of this Act, provided always that the widow's pension shall not exceed 600 rix-dol. (1,200 kroner), nor the pension for which the husband should have been qualified, or which

he was receiving at the time of his death.

In special cases the king may grant an annual allowance of from 10 rix-dol. to 40 rix-dol. (20 kroner to 80 kroner) to each of the widow's children, still being unprovided for, until their 18th year, provided always that it shall every year be proved to the Ministry of Finance that the causes for granting this allowance are still prevalent.

#### IX.

Any widow who shall have married her husband after his 60th year, or upon his deathbed, or after his retirement upon a pension, or who shall have been divorced before his death, shall be disqualified for receiving a pension.

#### X.

Wives of Government officials who are not qualified for receiving a pension under this Act, but who, according to the regulations hitherto in force, have already, previous to the publication of this Act, become qualified for receiving a pension, shall continue personally to be qualified for receiving a pension to the same extent as formerly.

#### Xſ.

A widow's pension shall cease—

1. On her marrying again.

- 2. On her taking up her residence abroad with permission from the Crown.
- 3. On her neglecting to draw her pension during three consecutive years, without afterwards being able to prove the legal cause of such neglect.

4. On her being found guilty of crime.

A pension which has been withdrawn from a widow on her marrying again shall be renewed on her becoming again a widow.

#### XII.

The regulations for pensions to clergymen and their widows, as also for pensions to colonial officials and their widows, shall form the subject of special enactments.

Until it shall be thus specially enacted clergymen and clergymen's widows, as well as colonial officials and their widows, shall be qualified for receiving the same pensions as hitherto.

#### XIII.

The Crown may grant to orphans of Government officials, qualified for receiving a pension, an annual allowance of from 40 kroner (2l. 5s.) to 200 kroner (11l.), provided that they shall only receive it as long as they are deserving of such an allowance and in actual want, and provided they have not passed their 18th year. A certificate to the above effect must be presented every year to the Ministry of Finance.

#### XIV.

If a pension or allowance shall not be drawn for a whole year, the amount for that year shall revert to the fund out of which the said pension is paid, &c.

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1891.

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No. 206.

# REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

## DENMAR·K.

#### FURTHER REPORT ON A

#### PROJECT FOR MAKING COPENHAGEN A FREE PORT.

REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Miscellaneous Series No. 185.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, JULY, 1891.

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#### No. 206.

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#### DENMARK.

#### COPENHAGEN.

Mr. MacDonell to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Copenhagen, May 27, 1891.

Now that a company has been definitely constituted for the working of the free port at Copenhagen, it may perhaps be convenient that I should complete my previous reports by laying before your Lordship the following supplementary remarks on this

interesting subject:

The origin of the scheme for erecting Copenhagen into a free port must, no doubt, be sought in the fears, very naturally entertained, that the canal now in course of construction through Holstein, from the North Sea to the Baltic, might, by attracting trade to the North German ports, in a great measure neutralise the many advantages which Copenhagen has hitherto derived from its unrivalled geographical position, as regards facilities of commercial intercourse with the ports of Prussia, Russia, Finland, and Sweden. Owing to this highly commodious situation, a free port easy of access at the natural entrance of the Baltic must, no doubt, greatly tend to enhance the importance of this place, by creating here a central emporium for the commodities of Western Europe and of America, from which the Scandinavian countries and the Baltic ports may be expected to draw their supplies.

It is the belief of the originators and promoters of this enterprise that the merchants of the Baltic will not be slow to avail themselves of the considerable advantages thus offered by a harbour comparatively free from ice in midwinter, where their goods may be warehoused for future export, free of duty, on payment of storage dues based upon a liberal tariff; and it is also expected that the Copenhagen merchants will purchase more largely as transit traders, or for the purpose of manufacturing on

the spot.

Arrangements will likewise be made by which loans or advances on goods will be obtainable on easy terms, and no efforts will be (1140) spared to attract vessels to the port, so as to secure shipments at

low freights when profitable sales can be effected.

The possibility is also contemplated of Transatlantic steamers, owing to the small depth of water in some of the Baltic ports, finding it more profitable to make Copenhagen their terminus, thus saving time and expense, and avoiding the risks inseparable from a voyage into the Baltic; at the same time leaving the distribution of their cargoes amongst the shallow ports of that sea to be effected by the merchants of this place.

It is understood that the Holstein Canal will be completed in 1895, and it therefore becomes imperative that every endeavour should be used to open, at least partially, the free harbour of

Copenhagen to traffic within the next three or four years.

The free port will be situated at the northern extremity of the present harbour, and to the west of the inner roads. The entrance, protected seaward by piers and breakwaters, will be 300 feet in width, and at the northern end of the port, thus affording direct communication with the Sound.

The depth of water will be from 24 feet to 26 feet throughout, eventually to be increased in the largest of the basins or docks, of which the port will comprise three. These will be surrounded by commodious quays and wharves, to which access will be

facilitated by steam ferries.

Owing to the absence of tides in the Sound, the depth of water will not be subject to variations by more than 2 feet, according to the direction of the wind, and no special appliance

will be requisite to retain the water in the basins.

The water area of the free port will be about  $54\frac{1}{2}$  acres, surrounded by some 10,000 feet of wharves or quays, while the area of the ground comprised will measure about 82,000 acres; but this space may be considerably increased if necessary. The entire area thus occupied will be enclosed, and is to be treated as

lying outside the customs territory of Denmark.

The free port will be connected with the custom-house of Copenhagen by a railway and carriage road, which will also be fenced off, and under custom surveillance. A goods terminus in conjunction with the general railway system of the country, and a steam ferry for the conveyance of trains to and from the neighbouring coast of Sweden, will afford every facility for the movement of freight and passengers.

Modern appliances of perfected mechanism will be available at the wharves and in the warehouses for loading and discharging cargoes and for the transhipment of goods, while that portion of the ground not in use will be let out for the erection of factories and

workshops.

The undertaking has been placed in the hands of the Copenhagen Harbour Board, working in connection with a private

company.

The Board has already disbursed 4,500,000 kroner on various works connected with the present port of Copenhagen, which it is intended shall eventually form part of the free port; but it is

estimated that a further outlay of at least 9,000,000 kroner will have to be incurred. At the same time the private company, which is to have the entire management of the port, buildings, warehouses, machinery, &c., is prepared to meet a further expenditure of 4,000,000 kroner, and this sum has, it is understood, been already placed at its disposal by various banks in this place. Thus the total cost of the undertaking may be put down at 17,000,000 to 18,000,000 kroner (1,000,000%), but doubts are entertained in some quarters as to the sufficiency of this sum.

The free port will remain the exclusive property of the company for a term of 80 years under a royal commission: during that time the company will have the entire control and management of the port, with this limitation that, after the expiration of the first 25 years, the Harbour Board—representing the State—has the right of redemption on payment of the shares at their average value during the previous 10 years, not however below par, and not at a higher premium than 125 per cent.

The State assists the Harbour Board in raising its share of the necessary capital by a guarantee of the interest and instalments towards the extinction of the debt on 8,000,000 kroner, against the undertaking remaining under the supervision and control of the Minister of the Interior and of the Rigsdag.

The yearly net proceeds—after payment of all charges—are to be apportioned between the Harbour Board and the share-holders of the company in accordance with the terms stipulated

in the concession.

Vessels entering the port will be exempted from the payment of shipping dues to the State, and of the harbour dues now claimed by the Harbour Board. They will only be charged, at a moderate rate, for the use of the wharves, machinery, &c.

The space within the free port will be exempt from all taxation; neither will the State be entitled to claim any taxes on buildings erected by the company within its precincts, nor will the municipality be empowered to levy any taxes whatsoever therein.

Goods or merchandise carried into or landed in the free port will be exempt from duty, or other imposts for customs purposes; they may, however, be despatched seaward in the same condition, or after having undergone manufacture, manipulation, sorting or sampling, without being subjected to any sort of duty.

Goods passing from the free port to the Danish customs territory will be liable to similar duties as if imported from a foreign country, and will, moreover, be subjected to the payment of a pro rata tax corresponding to the harbour dues leviable in the port of Copenhagen on the vessels in which they are conveyed.

The charges for warehousing and for the use of stores will be regulated by a tariff sanctioned by the Government, and dock warrants will be issued for goods so warehoused so as to

facilitate their sale or mortgage.

Warehouse rent and charges for wharfage, lighting, steampower, &c., will be fixed at a rate below those prevailing in the free ports of Hamburg and Bremen.

A depôt of English coal will be kept fully provided, and

supplies furnished at lowest rates.

The docks will be open day and night.

Banking facilities are promised by the financial houses con-

nected with the undertaking.

Large spaces in close proximity to the wharves will be available at a moderate rent in leases running up to 80 years for the erection of manufactories and other industrial establishments; while electric light, water, telephonic communication, and motive power will be supplied at a nominal charge.

Building material for the erection of such establishments and the machinery necessary for their working will be imported duty

free.

It is likewise the intention of the Danish authorities to treat

foreigners as regards licenses with the greatest liberality.

According to the laws of this country no income or other personal tax can be claimed from such foreign firms or companies who, while carrying on business within the free port, retain their domicile in other countries. Persons employed in the free port, who fix their residence in Copenhagen ouside its boundaries, will, of course, be liable to the payment of income-tax and other municipal taxes.

Within the precincts of the port every kind of industrial pursuit may be carried on, with the exception of such industries as are devoted to the manufacture of goods themselves exempt from customs duty, but the raw material for which would be subject to duty, or, again, where the duty on the raw material exceeds the duty on the manufactured article. This applies especially to the printing and bookbinding industries, to the manufacture of margarine, and of artificial manures.

It may be observed that the free port, being situated in close proximity to the capital, with its population of 350,000 to 400,000 inhabitants, labour will be procurable at a lower rate of wages than that prevailing in most other countries.

As to whether the expectations of the originators and promoters of this scheme are likely to be fulfilled it would be

venturesome to offer an opinion.

Much, no doubt, depends on the advantages held out by the Holstein Canal. If it be true of the latter undertaking, which has, I believe, been carried out regardless of expense, that it has been designed solely for strategic purposes, and that the dues to be levied on shipping making use of its water way are to be based on a tariff bearing any relation to the sums expended on its construction, then there can be no question that vessels will find it more profitable to enter the Baltic by the old route round the Skaw, and also safer, if any reliance can be placed in the doubts entertained as to whether the approaches to the canal are devoid of danger in winter. On the other hand, if the dues to be levied

are comparatively moderate, then the calculations of the pro-

moters of the Copenhagen scheme may be at fault.

The project is certainly one of no small dimensions, and a careful study of the plan would lead to the conclusion that, if success attends the undertaking, it has not been designed on a corresponding scale.

To recapitulate, the principal objects aimed at are:—

1st. To facilitate and develop such transit trade as already exists in Copenhagen by reducing to a minimum all loading and discharging expenses, and by removing those trammels to trade inseparably connected with the collection of dues and the interference of customs officers.

2nd. To assist such industries, as have a chance of thriving here, to compete in neutral markets by allowing the erection of works and the carrying on of manufactures within the area of the free port; thereby saving all unnecessary trouble and loss of time and expense, in first clearing the raw materials liable to duty, and conferring advantages likely to surpass those offered by the present drawback system, which, even if calculated with the utmost fairness, never entirely corresponds to the import duty on raw material, since waste, breakage, &c., during manufacture, are not taken into account.

It would seem safe then to admit that the general facilities offered to trade by the present scheme must be productive of beneficial results, and that the abolition of harbour dues must attract to the port a much larger amount of shipping than has at any previous time frequented it.

That it cannot fail to give a favourable impulse to the commerce of this place can hardly admit of a doubt, but whether it will prove profitable to our transit trade to the Baltic is another

question.



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#### EGYPT.

#### ALEXANDRIA.

Sir C. Cookson to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Alexandria, December 12, 1890.

In reply to Sir T. Villiers Lister's Despatch to Mr. Alban, of September 22, enclosing a copy of a letter asking for information on the Egyptian Rice Trade, I have the honour to forward herewith a Report, for which I am indebted to Mr. Vice-Consul Alban, containing the particulars required.

I regret that some delay should have occurred in furnishing the report in question, owing to the difficulty of obtaining information on the subject at a distance from the districts where the rice

mills are situated.

I have, &c. (Signed) CHAS. A. COOKSON.

#### Report on the Egyptian Rice Trade.

From the accompanying Table A, it will be seen that the total quantity of rice imported into Egypt during the period 1884-9 amounted to 6,604,807 quarters, and the total value to 773,946\$\(l)\$, giving an average annual value of 128,991\$\(l)\$. The above figures may be regarded as referring entirely to cleaned rice, the quantity of uncleaned rice imported, during the period in question, if any, being too insignificant to be taken into consideration. The import duty on rice is, at the present time, 8 per cent. ad valorem.

During the same period (see Table B) 255,980 quarters of Egyptian rice were exported, amounting in value to 712,255l, giving an average annual value of 118,709l; most of this rice, which is of the best quality of Rosetta rice, is exported to Syria, Turkey, Cyprus, and the Greek islands. The export duty is

1 per cent. ad valorem.

As a large portion of the rice produced is consumed in the villages, it is difficult to calculate with exactitude the average annual crop; it may, however, be roughly reckoned at about 450,000 quarters of cleaned rice, almost the whole of which is produced in the districts of Rosetta, Damietta, and the Fayoum. In 1877 about 36,000 acres were planted with rice, and the amount (1021)

of land on which rice is grown has probably doubled since that year. The total amount is, however, very uncertain, and varies considerably according to the supply of water at the disposal of the irrigation department, the cultivation of rice being occasionally entirely suspended, on account of the insufficiency of the water supply, in certain localities, as was the case last year; moreover, rice is not a sufficiently remunerative product to be cultivated on a very large scale. At the present time, when portions of the salt lakes on the northern coast of Egypt are gradually being reclaimed, many of the cultivators, during the first three years, when the reclaimed land must be constantly flooded with fresh water, plant rice, and although the first year's crop hardly does more than repay the cost of the seed, the third crop is generally abundant. Since 1884 about 200,000 acres of waste land have been thus reclaimed.

At Rosetta, where the best quality of white rice is cleaned, there are eleven mills, all of which are worked by steam on the old-fashioned pestle (pilon) system. These are, however, of a small size, the largest turning out less than 10 tons per diem. There is also a modern steam mill, fitted recently with English machinery, capable of turning out 70 tons per diem, to which further reference will be made below.

At Damietta there are 17 steam mills, but these are all small; there is also a large number of small mills worked by horse-power.

In the Fayoum there are, I understand, one steam mill and a number of mills worked by horse-power, to which the peasants

bring small quantities of rice to be cleaned.

Rice is bought for the mills directly from the cultivators, and it is a common practice to advance money to the peasants on the coming crop on consideration of its being delivered at a reduced price. Great care must be taken to guard against short weight on delivery. When cleaned the rice is packed in large double baskets for transmission to the villages or to Alexandria, where it is bought by wholesale merchants. A few of the millowners are themselves exporters, notably one at Rosetta, who has a valuable contract for supplying the Turkish Government.

As regards working expenses, the best quality of coal costs 23s. per ton at Rosetto, to which place it is conveyed by sea from Alexandria. The cost of labour is small, the average wages for a labourer being 3 piastres tariff (1l. = 97½ p.t.) per diem. Salt, of which there is a large admixture in Egyptian rice, costs about 1 piastre per lb. The house tax levied by the Government is not high.

There are, however, grave difficulties in the way of any attempt on the part of an English firm to compete in this trade,

of which the following are the most important:-

1. A large capital is absolutely necessary, as the whole stock of rice must be bought at the commencement of the season. In order to work a mill producing, for example, 70 tons a day, a capital of at least 20,000 to 30,000 to would be required. It is a question whether such a capital might not be more advantageously invested elsewhere.

2. It is extremely doubtful whether it would be possible for Englishmen to compete successfully with the old-established native millowners, who have a large capital at their disposal, and are thoroughly acquainted with all the native modes of doing business. These persons, assisted by their families, work their mills at a small cost, and are contented with comparatively moderate profits.

3. The risk, attendant upon all transactions between Europeans and natives of this country, and particularly in the rice trade, cannot be too strongly dwelt upon. The assistance of an experienced native would be absolutely indispensable, but such a person would require constant supervision on the part of a trustworthy Englishman, with experience of the East, who should combine the duties of manager and engineer in order to reduce working expenses as much as possible.

The three most indispensable requirements for an enterprise of

this kind may therefore be briefly said to be:-

1. A large capital.

2. A most careful supervision over employés, and caution in dealing with the cultivators.

3. The greatest possible economy in working expenses to

render competition with the native millowners possible.

A few years ago a large modern mill, to which I have referred above, was established at Rosetta by a European firm. The result was decidedly discouraging, and after some losses the mill was closed. The promoter of the enterprise attributes its failure to the want of sufficient capital and the dishonesty of native managers, who were not under proper supervision. In view, however, of these broad facts, which I have stated above, I would recommend the greatest caution before embarking on an enterprise of this nature, and would suggest to any who may think of doing so the advisability of sending to Egypt a person possessing a technical knowledge of this industry who, after some residence on the spot, and an examination into the details of the trade, would be able to report decidedly as to the probability of a successful issue to such an undertaking.

A.—Table showing the Quantity and Value of the Rice Imported into Egypt during the Period 1884-9.

Year.			Quantity.	Value.
		 Quarters.		
1889			 1,123,180	181,846
1888	••		 1,098,689	125,564
1887	•••	• •	 1,607,866	182,251
1886	••	••	 1,213,875	140,494
1885	••	••	 917,157	118,590
1884	••	••	 649,590	80,201
	The	<b>al</b>	 6,604,807	778,946

B.—Table showing the Quantity and Value of the Rice Exported from Egypt during the Period 1884-9.

	Y	0 <b>a</b> r.		Quantity.	Value	
				Quarters.	£	
1889				43,261	76,000	
188 <b>8</b>	• •		1	81,768	112,576	
1887		••		<b>36,807</b>	187,896	
1886				88,458	111,525	
1885	••			35,450	132,958	
1884	• •	••		75,286	141,800	
<b>T</b> .	otal		-	255,980	712,255	

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1891.

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## FRANCE.

#### REPORT ON THE

## CULTIVATION OF CITRONS OR CEDRATS IN THE ISLAND OF CORSICA.

REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT (Leghorn), Miscellaneous, Series No. 125.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, JUNE, 1891.

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#### No. 201.

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#### FRANCE.

#### AJACCIO.

Consul Drummond to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord,
Ajaccio, May 16, 1891.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a Report on the

Cultivation of Citrons in the Island of Corsica. I have, at the same time, to express my regret for the delay which has occurred in forwarding this Report, but I judged it better to collect reliable information from persons competent to express an opinion, and from my own personal experience, before attempting to make a Report after so short a residence.

I have, &c. (Signed) MALCOLM DRUMMOND.

Report on the Cultivation of Citrons, or "Cedrats," in the Island of Corsica.

The great difficulty in obtaining reliable information and Initial correct data concerning the cultivation of the citron tree, or difficulties in "cedrat," in this island is principally due, not only to the distance information which separates the different districts where it is carried on, but on the also to the reluctance of both growers and buyers to concede subject, information which may conduce to the development of the culture of this very remunerative article of commerce in other parts of the world in which the conditions of climate and soil might prove suitable.

I attribute the size, aroma, and general superiority of the Reasons for Corsican citron, which always commands a higher price in the the superior market than that produced in other countries, in a great degree to quality of, and the soil of Corsica; which being not only extremely rich in for, the ferruginous qualities, is also strongly impregnated with the various Corsican salts and chemicals necessary for the production of the numerous citron.

(1131)

aromatic plants with which the island abounds. This is palpably evident from the natural growth on the hill sides called "maquis," consisting as it does largely of myrtles, cystus, wild lavender, heaths, arbutus, and a variety of highly scented plants and shrubs, which in spring and early summer not only impregnate the whole atmosphere with their delicious aroma, but can also be recognised for some distance at sea when the wind is off the shore, thereby causing the land breezes to truly merit the term balmy so frequently applied without nearly so much justification.

Requisites for the choice of a position in

Another requisite for the successful growth of the "cedrat," or, as we term it, citron tree, is perfect shelter from the mistral, or a position in establishing a north wind, as well as absolute protection from frost, these citron garden desiderata, together with plenty of sun, and an adequate supply of water having been obtained, a good crop should be looked for if constant care and attention are given, proper manuring at the right seasons carried out, water supplied artificially morning and evening during the dry season, and the various diseases to which the tree is subject, and which I shall mention subsequently, watched for, and attended to in due time.

Description of usual site of a Corsican garden.

The site usually selected in Corsica for a plantation or garden is a sheltered valley, at an altitude of not more than 200 feet to 300 feet above the sea-level, facing south or south-west, the north and north-east winds which blow strongly during the winter months having to be carefully guarded against; or an equally well placed hill-side not too much exposed. A constant supply of water is an absolute sine qua non, this being usually insured by damming a small rivulet, should there be no spring in the neighbourhood, and constructing reservoirs and tanks of size proportional to the area to be planted, which is never large, its extent being usually limited by the local conditions, and extending from a few square yards to as much as three or four acres on rare occasions. A space of at least 12 to 16 superficial yards being requisite for each tree naturally limits the number of trees to the space available. In many places in the Cap de Corso district, in the northern peninsular of the island, where the natives are a harder working people and more intelligent than in the south, the gardens are surrounded by high stone walls, divided by inner walls, and again subdivided by stiff fences of dried brushwood closely wattled; no more than four trees sometimes occupy these small plots, to which the soil has at times been brought in baskets at the cost of much time and labour, in order to take advantage of a sheltered situation. This careful protection is seldom seen in the southern portion of the island, the lazy character of the people resting satisfied with what nature has done for them in the way of situation, shelter, and supply of soil and water. Frequently in the Cap de Corso and Balagna districts, the principal fruit cultivating regions of Corsica, the trees are protected during the winter by branches and mats spread from wall to wall, and in nearly all cases a piece of stiff wattled brushwood is erected as a protection above the walls.

The produce of a cedrat tree naturally varies in the amount Value of the and size of the fruit, according to the situation of the garden, the culturesoil, and the care and attention devoted to it by the grower; but price a single tree of matured growth frequently returns as much as frequently 10L to 12L per annum; these figures alone show how remunera- obtained. tive a culture that of the citron may be made, although the original outlay for making the garden, which is nearly always terraced, frequently involving considerable labour for masonry, walls, &c., as well as for the tanks and water conduits, may have been very considerable.

I am indebted to a Corsican gentleman, Comte Multedo, a Observations member of the Council of the department, for some data as to the by Comte expense of forming a garden from virgin soil in a suitable Corsican position, and as he is a large landed proprietor, and has great proprietor, on experience, his figures, together with the remarks he has been so citron culture. good as to add, I consider to be of sufficient value on the subject as to be worth quoting in extenso:—

"The causes which combine to make the culture of the cedrat (citron) an exceptionally lucrative enterprise, and those which constantly ensure a high price for this fruit, if produced in Corsica, are, firstly, that the Corsican cedrat is renowned as being by far the best produced, and, secondly, that the cedrats of Algeria, Spain, Genoa, and Sicily have all of them beneath the epidermis a sandy substance which grates against the teeth in a disagreeable manuer. Moreover, in Corsica even but few latitudes and situations are completely favourable to the cedrat tree, the proof of which lies in the fact that not a single plantation in the immediate neighbourhood of the town of Ajaccio has succeeded, as not only does this tree require a low situation, but it is also necessary to shelter it in a valley, the configuration of which shelters it from every wind.

"The main root of the tree being very short and feeble, it nourishes itself principally by its smaller branch roots, which require water in abundance—a rare thing in Corsica. It also requires great natural heat during summer, as well as a strong and light soil. Although it is customary to plant the trees at intervals of 3 metres (10 feet, approximately), it is preferable to give them an interval of 4 metres (13 feet, approximately), which would give 16 square metres (about 17 square yards) of superficial space for each tree. This would allow liberally for 600 trees to the hectare (2.47 acres—the hectare may be taken as 2½ acres practically, for all but very exact calculations).

"The cedrat gives a half crop in three years' time, and at from six to seven years of age it produces from 400 lbs. to 500 lbs. of fruit; at from 10 to 12 years old it gives from 500 lbs. to 600 lbs.

"The small cultivators of cedrats have to struggle against the buyers in no small degree. The Genoese merchants have our small cultivators in the district of Ajaccio frequently completely at their mercy, as they have not the necessary conveniences for picking their fruit, and they have not, as in the district of Bastia, a manu-(1131)

factory for candying fruit, the result being that the buyers or middlemen frequently obtain the fruit of the small growers at half or a quarter its real value. For instance, in 1889, the buyers paid no more per zuba (a Genoese measure equivalent to about 27.5 lbs. to 28 lbs.) than 3 fr. 25 c., 3 fr. 50 c., or 3 fr. 75 c. All that would have been necessary to have obtained better prices would have been to have placed the fruit in barrels of brine.

"On the continent the prices seldom vary between the candying factories and the consumer. However, even taking the low price of 3 fr. 50 c. the zuba of 25 lbs. (French) as a basis, a hectare containing 600 cedrat trees of from six to seven years old, producing each tree from 16 zubas to 20 zubas (400 lbs. to 500 lbs.), should bring in over 30,000 fr. per annum (1,200*l*.).

"The expenses of upkeep consist only of watering, and are not considerable. Pruning has recently been abandoned, as it was noticed that trees grew sickly under the treatment. Besides watering, the only other necessary expenditure would be incurred for placing supports beneath the heavily-laden branches. The crop is gathered in November. In March and April there is a second small gathering—that of the 'victims' fruit, of very symmetrical form, left on the trees to attain a larger size in order to sell them to the Jews at Easter, who make use of them for their Passover ceremonies. The victims grow at the junction of the branches, or at their extremities.

"At Bastia a candying factory has been started, in order to prevent the continental buyers from entirely controlling the market. It has succeeded fairly well in the undertaking for which it was intended. Large profits might be made by starting another factory, say at Sagona, in the centre of that part of the district of Ajaccio where the cultivation of cedrats is principally carried on. It would not be a difficult matter to treat the fruit in a superior manner to the candying establishments at Bastia and on the continent, where the cedrats are but poorly preserved. There is a certain method of candying the cedrat which produces an exquisite fruit, and of whose delicious flavour it is impossible to form any idea if one is only acquainted with the ordinary candied cedrat of commerce."

The following are the figures furnished by Comte Multedo representing the expenditure necessary to be incurred for starting a fair-sized plantation of citron trees:—

Schedule of
expenses
necessary in
opening a
garden :
figures of
Comte
Multedo.

	Curren	cy. Sterling.
	France	s. £
Clearing 5 hectares (121 acres)	. 8,00	
O	5,000	0 200
TIT-A-m	8,00	0 120
Manuring	. 14,000	0 560
Shelter fences in dried thorn	. 8,000	0 120
House and dependencies	. 16,000	
Total	. 44,000	0 1,760

It will be seen that these figures do not include the cost of the Remarks on land, nor do they allow for walls, masonry, and terracing.

Comte Multedo writes from the point of view of the grower Multedo's as well as that of proprietor of the soil and landlord, and it follows, naturally, that allowance must be made for the views which he puts forward from that position. I see no reason to doubt his figures in any way, with the exception of those omissions to which I have drawn attention.

Having carried the reader as far as the gathering of the crop, Treatment of we must now turn our attention to its treatment previous to its the citron delivery to the candying factories. At present, it may be gathered its transfer from Comte Multedo's remarks, a considerable loss in prices is to the frequently sustained by small growers owing to the absence of candying the necessary conveniences for temporarily preserving the fruit factory. previous to its subjection to the treatment by which it is prepared for the market. This preservation consists in steeping the fruit in casks of brine, composed of sea water with a certain admixture Preservation of salt, and possibly other saline chemicals, which remain a trade fruit previous secret amongst the buyers and preservers, and which differ to according to each individual's method of treatment. It is im-manufacture. possible to obtain any data on this process of the treatment of the cedrat, as the buyers naturally object to imparting information only obtained by them after long experience, and frequently after considerable losses. I have, however, ascertained that all that is really necessary is sea water with an admixture of salt, varying according to the bulk, condition, and moisture of the gathered fruit. For the ordinary citrons the fruit is sliced in halves to permit the brine permeating the inner rind; but the finer qualities of fruit, such as weigh from 2 lbs. to 3 lbs., are frequently preserved whole, and as such form not only an elegant but extremely delicious adjunct to the table. These whole fruit are in great request in Algeria, Egypt, Turkey, and amongst all oriental peoples, and high prices are obtained for the choicest fruits thus candied. They differ as much from the ordinary candied citron sold in grocers' shops in England as the choice vintages of Bordeaux, such as those of the Chateaux Margaux and Lasitte, do from the vin ordinaire or manufactured wine served at an ordinary continental table d'hôte.

The principal centre of the citron candying industry is Leg. The citron horn, a full description of the treatment of the pickled fruit when candying delivered at the factory has already been given in Consul Leghorn and O'Neill's report on this subject. Italy enjoys a considerable Bastia, advantage over Corsica in this industry on account of the draw-comparison back allowed on the sugar used in the process of candying; this facilities almost amounts to a bounty on the export. The manufacturer given by pays duty on his sugar in the ordinary way, but the amount of Governments. drawback returned is calculated on the amount of sugar estimated to have been used in candying the citrons. This estimate, being always considerably in excess of the real amount consumed, is equivalent to endowing the Italian candied citron industry to that extent. Some years ago the Corsicans very justly claimed some

corresponding arrangement from the French Government, in order to enable them to manufacture candied citrons free of duty on sugar, and thus protect the culture of the fruit by providing a regular local market for the growers. This local industry, it was hoped, would compete successfully with the Leghorn factories, and thus preclude the necessity of the Corsican grower being compelled to accept any price which the buyers for the Genoese and Leghorn manufacturers might choose to offer. The French Government acceded to this very reasonable demand by conceding to the manufacturers in Corsica the privilege of establishing their factories "in bond" in Corsica; but in order to effectually protect the cultivator imposed certain restrictions, which, although, at first sight, were fairly enough drawn up, proved to be absolutely prohibitive to the manufacture of any but the native grown fruit.

To this carefully-studied plan of protection the recent decline in the industry of citron candying in Bastia may be principally attributed. No sooner were two important factories established, and their reputation made, than the protected growers saw their way to profit by the situation. Whilst ready to sell their citrons at fair prices to Italian factories, because otherwise these factories would buy in the open markets of Greece, Italy, Spain, &c., they demanded excessive prices of the local French manufacturers in consequence of the provisions of the tariff regulations compelling French manufacturers to purchase Corsican produce only, thus shutting them out from the open market. The Corsican factories at Bastia have consequently found themselves compelled this year either to liquidate or stock themselves entirely with Corsican citrons at double their real They have selected the latter course as preferable, liquidation being no easy matter when holding large stocks of sugar in bond on which duty would have to be paid and considerable losses sustained if sold in short markets for the small local consumption.

Mr. Vice-Consul Southwell, of Bastia, who has an intimate and extended knowledge of the citron trade, takes a view somewhat opposed to that of Comte Multedo as to the fair proportion of profits which should in justice accrue to the grower. His remarks on the subject will therefore be appreciated, and are equally valuable from the point of view of the purchaser whether of the fresh or pickled fruit.

Vice-Consul Southwell in a recent report writes as follows:—
"Corsica has always produced the finest quality of citrons, and
it has until recently enjoyed a well-merited preference for its
fruit both in British and other markets. But demands have been
brisk for some years, and Corsican growers and middlemen got to
think that they could raise their prices to an unlimited extent,
and that the market being a limited one buyers must give in to
them. They have left out of their calculations an important fact,
namely, that the steadily-increasing demand for their fruit was
not unnoticed by other citron-producing countries, and whilst the

Vice-Consul Southwell's report on the citron growing districts. Corsican growers were holding their crops for impossible prices these countries were steadily increasing their production and improving the quality of their fruit, finding all markets only too ready to encourage them in order to be no longer at the mercy of Corsican pretensions. This fact has not hitherto been appreciated by the Corsican growers, and I consider that when they do realise it, it will be already too late to save what has hitherto been and still might be the most important branch of agriculture in the island."

A few remarks on the diseases to which the "cedrat," or Remarks upon citron tree, is subject, and which have recently caused much loss diseases to in the Balagna, one of the richest fruit-producing districts on the citron is west coast of the island, may not be out of place in a report on subject. this subject. These remarks are taken from a special report on the subject made by M. Massimi, Professor of Agriculture for the department, and kindly placed at my disposal by M. Bonnefoy-Libour, Prefect of Corsica. The cedrat, or citron tree, Diseases to is subject to various diseases, white-root, fumagine, or smut, which the kermes, oscine, &c., but of all the diseases that of white-root is "codrat the one most to be dreaded and guarded against. It is due to a is subject. fungoid growth which attacks the cortical tissue of the root, Disease of exhausts this tissue, and ends by destroying the plant after an white-root interval of more or less time in proportion to its powers of resist- and its ance to the disease. Its first attacks are recognised by the symptoms. discolouration of the leaf, which turns yellow and develops ulceration at the base of the stalk. Another sign of the attack of the fungoid growth may be recognised by the condition of the roots of the suspected tree. Exposed to view these roots appear tender, damp, and inclined to rot. In order to cure the trees of Measures to white-root various measures have been at different times adopted, be taken in of which the following are the most expressed. The first star to white-root. of which the following are the most approved: The first step to be taken is to prune to the quick all roots deprived of vitality, after which an equilibrium should be established by proportioning the branches to the roots which remain unaffected. The tree should then be surrounded by a deep trench, with a free passage for the overflow of water. A second measure consists in cutting off the affected roots and applying a preparation of boiling tar to the exposed stump. This treatment gives the best results, and is, as may be seen, easily applied and suitable to all plantations. third method frequently used in Portugal is the æration of the roots. After carefully trenching round the main stem in order to expose the principal roots, the hole is filled with stones of the size of the fist, or still better with lumps of charcoal, the efficacy of which against decaying matter is well known, after which the trunk of the tree is embedded to the height of 15 inches with the same stones or lumps of charcoal. These stones or lumps are placed at sufficient distance from each other as to allow of the passage of the air which then penetrates to the roots of the tree and prevents them from being affected by the fungoid growth. "Citron-black" or "smut."—Another disease no less destruc- "Fumagine"

tive than white root is the "fumagine," or smut. This is a species or "smut,

of black cryptogamic vegetation which affects the bark and upper surface of the leaf. This fungoid growth absorbs the juices and nourishment necessary for the tree, which soon becomes feeble and ceases to bear in consequence.

Curative measures in "amut."

Fumagine or smut is at present destroyed by a process as efficacious as it is easy of application. This process consists of whitewashing the tree with lime-wash as far as the bark extends. and in syringing the leaves with the same preparation. Syringing with tobacco juice and soft soap gives equally good results. it is usually in damp and shady situations that smut shows itself, and as the trees affected are generally those which have not been allowed sufficient space, they must be first subjected to moderate syringing and afterwards to a good pruning in order to give access to air and light.

" Kermes"symptoms of this disease.

Measures to

" kermes."

This disease does great harm to the citron; the tree affected by this insect presents the appearance of a number of small brown excrescences on its branches, about the size of a This is the chrysalid of the female insect which dies shortly after depositing its eggs. In the spring the eggs hatch out, the larvæ spread over the young leaves, consuming them and destroying the sap of the tree. Myriads of microscopically small eggs may be destroyed, which have been deposited beneath the be adopted in dried and hardened husk of the dead female adhering to the tree, by rubbing the ligneous parts with a cloth dipped in a boiling decoction formed of the following parts: 4 quarts of soapy water in which are dissolved a pound of soft-soap and sufficient lime to give consistency. An equally good remedy consists in the application with a brush of a decoction of tobacco juice, walnut husks and chlorate of lime. In order to guard against kermes the following treatment may be tried with success:—Dissolve quarter of a pound of soft soap in 2 quarts of water, add a quarter of a gill of tobacco juice and 3 spoonfuls of essence of turpentine. This mixture having been prepared over-night and strained is syringed over the trees every two or three days.

Disease of oscine or orange fly symptoms.

The orange-tree fly is thus named. It is an insect which causes white-mould, a disease thus named in contradistinction to smut, or black mould, and causes great ravages amongst lemon trees, and more particularly amongst cedrats. quantity of this fly collects on the under surface of the leaf, and absorbs the sap, the leaves rapidly lose their green tint and become whitish, the tree sickens and the young shoots appear feeble and fall off. Towards the end of May the winged insect appears; the female fly attacks the young fruit, piercing the rind by means of a borer which she carries like a sting, and deposits her eggs within the pulp of the fruit. The egg produces a cater-pillar which decomposes the surrounding substance, giving effect to a gummy issue from the fruit; finally the fruit detaches itself and falls to the ground before arriving at maturity.

Curative measur. s.

This insect is easily destroyed by a decoction of lupine applied to the leaves by means of a garden syringe. The fly attacks the lower surface of the leaf, and if the plant be syringed so as to affect the fly, it will never resist this excellent insecticide. mixture of 1 quart of tobacco juice to 2 quarts of water may also be used. A third treatment, no less efficacious, is to dissolve 2 lbs. of soft soap in 2 quarts of water, adding 2 lbs. of nicotine of 12° strength, and syringe the leaves with a fine syringe. In all these remedies, and in many others which have been employed to contend with these diseases, the ingredients employed have always been quicklime, cinders, sulphur, tobacco juice, and soft soap. If these destructive agents do not completely cure the disease, they, at all events, prevent the propagation of the insect,

and arrest its ravages.

In addition to the diseases mentioned, two other causes tend Other reasons to the degeneration of the citron tree and render them more liable for to disease. These are, firstly, the methods employed for repro- degeneration duction; secondly, the want of proper and suitable manuring. The trees are nearly always reproduced from shoot or slips. This system no doubt allows of a quicker return, as the trees arrive sooner at maturity, but these more rapidly grown trees have not so long a life and soon deteriorate. They are far from having the vigorous, if slower, growth and longevity of trees raised from seed. Daily experience tends to prove that trees imported from Genoa, and obtained from seed, are in a much better condition than those obtained from cuttings. It is time that this degeneration, which is already assuming alarming proportions, was checked. If, instead of continuing the fatal system of cuttings, seedling nurseries had been established, in the course of ten years a large number of new plants would have been produced ready to take the place of those trees which had gradually weakened and become sterile.

The following is the method of procedure for raising seedling Method or The choicest fruit is selected and exposed to the sun in a propagation heap, allowed to ferment from eight to ten days, then thrown into of seedling water to soak for a few hours, and then broken up by hand. It is then allowed to rest a few minutes and the seeds which sink are collected, leaving those which float. The seeds when dried must be sown at once or kept in dry sand. The seeds chosen are sown in pots or shallow boxes filled with peat-mould, and covered with a slight layer of leaf-mould and sand, and a layer of straw above. They must be kept sufficiently watered to ensure the moisture necessary for germination. The month of April is most favourable for sowing. The first year it will be sufficient to keep the plants free from weeds and watered. One or two years after the young seedlings are pricked out, taking care when removing them to retain the mould adhering to the roots. They are then planted in the nursery at about 18 inches to 2 feet apart. In the spring of the third year the lower branches are pruned in order to ensure a strong stem.

Want of suitable manuring.—This is one of the principal manuring. causes of the deterioration and premature death of the citron tree. Ordinary farm manure is that usually employed, but it is frequently so long exposed previous to use, and allowed to drain its richness away and deteriorate generally as to be almost useless,

especially as it is employed in far too small quantities. Moreover, farm manure, no matter how rich, is not sufficient; its component portions of nitrogen, phosphate of lime, and soda being

wanting in proper proportions.

The citron, when in full bearing, should be manured twice every year. In April 4 cwts. of manure should be given to each tree, lightly spread and dug in. In July 10 lbs. to 12 lbs. of guano, mixed with an equal weight of cinders, should be dug

Formula for chemical manure for 1 hectare of orchard land.

The following formula of M. Georges Ville are suitable for a hectare (2.47 acres) of fruit trees:—

					Cwts.
Super-phosphate of lim	е	• •	• •	• •	12
Nitrate of potash	• •	• •		••	10
Sulphate of lime	• •	••	••	••	8
Total	••	••	••	••	80
					Cwts.
Super-phosphate of lim	е	••	••	• •	12
Chlorate of potash	••	••	••	••	10
Sulphate of ammonia	• •	• •	••	••	7
,, lime	••	••	••	••	
Total	••	••	••	••	80
					Cwts.
Precipitated phosphate	• • •	• •	• •		5
Nitrate of potash	••	••	••	••	10
Sulphate of lime	••	••	••	• •	5
Total	••	••		••	20

The Corsican cultivators who make use of chemical manures are the exception. Our orchards would assuredly gain in value if the cultivators understood the necessity of augmenting the farm manures employed by chemical manures rich in phosphates and nitrogen.

Remarks on the 1890 citron crop by Vice Consul Southwell.

The last year's produce of citrons is considered a good one, and the prices of fresh fruit have been generally 63 fr. or 64 fr. per 100 kilos., equivalent to about 11. 5s. 6d. the cwt.

Vice-Consul Southwell observes as follows as to this year's

crop of fruit:-

"The last crop, gathered in November, I consider to be a fair average one and of fine quality; the total production was about 2,000 tons. Of this two local manufacturers of candied fruit for the Dutch and American markets have taken some 800 tons; while there has been exported in brine for England and Germany about 300 tons; to Italy about 200 tons; leaving stock unsold, about 700 tons.

Exorbitant prices demanded by speculators.

." The fair value of selected Corsican citrons in brine at the opening of the season was about 25l. per ton" (this price is slightly under that returned from other sources—M.D.), "but blind local speculation, for which there has never been the slightest excuse, enabled growers to profit enormously, and the windown in about 851. per ton, at a time when it was known that crops elsewhere were very large and selling at about half the price of Corsican citrons.

"Thus England, Germany, and Italy, until now by far the largest customers of Corsica, have taken this season barely onefourth of the crop, and that at less than cost from weak holders, and have more than filled their requirements elsewhere.

"At the present moment I think I may say that unsold stocks of raw fruit are larger than I have ever known them at this season, and with no chance whatever of sale this year except

at greatly reduced prices.

"But the Corsicans say that the late severe weather has damaged the trees and that the crops next season will be so small as to warrant their holding over and putting a value of about 45L per ton on their fruit. My own opinion is, that prospects for next season's crops are by no means very bad whilst those for all other countries are good, and that Corsicans may yet find that buyers will not come here to beg for their citrons at

fancy prices."

The question as to whether the cultivation of the Corsican Prospects of citron tree could be made equally remunerative in other countries, successful in some of our colonies for instance, is one on which it is impossible in the colonies to express an opinion without accurate data concerning the of East and latitude, temperature, rainfall, conditions of soil, &c., in the South Africa. region proposed. As may be gathered from the opinions I have quoted, the principal requisites, a suitable soil having been found, are shelter, warmth, water, and manuring. These desiderate apply equally to the cultivation of all delicate trees, and the rich soils which produce the cardamoms and cinnamon of Ceylon, and the cloves of Zanzibar, would probably be well worth experimenting upon with a view to the cultivation of the cedrat.

The high lying valleys on the mountain slopes of our newly acquired protectorates in Africa would, I should say, form an excellent position for conducting a series of experiments in various cultures, of which the cedrat and lemon might form a portion, and no great outlay would be necessary for the establishment of an

experimental plantation.

That the Corsican grower is inclined to over-reach himself and Consequences ruin a hitherto very profitable culture by his grasping nature is, I of position fear, but too true; as although very keen business people they are up by are apt to be extremely short-sighted when an opportunity for Coisica. large profit occurs. I should not recommend any person, however, to invest capital on that account, either in the purchase of citron gardens already established, or in taking up land with a view to planting; as so many difficulties would have to be encountered, and, indeed, thrown in his way whenever opportunity occurred, that although good profits might eventually be realised it would be at the risk, in all probability, of considerable annoyance, and possibly of material loss.



Impossibility of obtaining statistics of area under cultivation.

I regret much that it is impossible to obtain any statistics as to the area under citron cultivation in the various districts, or the total area or number of gardens; but judging from the annual increase in the returns of exports under the head of citrons, it would appear that the Corsican grower still considers the establishment of fresh gardens as a good investment for his money.

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#### 1890.

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#### GERMANY.

#### FRANKFORT.

Acting Consul-General Goldbeck to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Frankfort-on-Main, August 27, 1890.

I HAVE the honour to hand your Lordship enclosed a Report on German, French, and British Trade during the first six months of 1890.

The comparative statistics contained in the same and the remarks thereon are taken from the "Frankfurter Zeitung," one of this city's leading commercial papers, and will, I have no doubt, be read with great interest.

I have, &c. (Signed) B. GOLDBECK.

German, French, and British Trade during the First Six Months of 1890.

The insufficiency of German trade statistics renders it at the present period by no means an easy task to gain a clear view respecting the condition of German trade for the first half-year of 1890.

While other countries, such as France and Great Britain, are already now in a position to render an exact account as to the commercial successes achieved during the first half-year of 1890, the figures of the German trade statistics for the full year 1890 will not be published before July, 1891.

Nevertheless a glance at the figures presented shows that on the whole the German export trade continues in an unfavourable condition.

Contemporaneous with the increase in the imports of the necessaries of life, especially such as are affected by the tariff, there is a further decline noticeable in many important items of the exports.

It is true the export trade shows some improvements, but in the face of the heavy decline of the preceding years they must still appear as deficient.

The following table contains the most important increase in (982)

the arrivals of provisions. During the first half-year the imports amounted to-

					18 <b>90.</b>	1889.
					Double Cwt.	Donble Cwt.
Wh	est		• •		2,988,826	2,414,675
Bar	lev	• •			8,127,913	2,490,224
	coffee		• •	••	600,225	552,758
Ric		••	• •	••	481,840	418,624
Egg		••	•	•	320,656	257,048
Gre			••	•	440,682	276,838
	e in ca		•••	•	897,379	386,218
	acco le			••	218,926	199,496
Ho		••			174,477	106,465

This constant increase in the imports, in spite of excessive duties, proves clearly that the idea of emancipating Germany from other countries by means of an excessive protective tariff la preposterous.

In the iron industry the imports have increased considerably, and the same can be said with reference to the items given in the

following table:—
The imports amounted during the first half-year to—

		1890.	1889.
		Double Cwt.	Double Cwt.
Oats	••	1,119,830	1,032,886
Maize		8, 23,898	1,869,817
Raw copper	••	162,187	86,798
Timber and lumber	••	10,406,468	9,258,489
Cotton	••	1,508,894	1,472,627

The exports during the first half-year of 1890, as compared with the corresponding period in the three preceding years, were—

		1890.	1889.	1888.	1887.
		Double Cwt.	Double Cwt	DoubleCwt.	DoubleCwt
Cotton goods	••	142,664	127,852	149,126	150,569
Apparel and linen	••	82,677	29,386	82,605	80,817
Cordage		21,626	19,991	22,095	21,610
Linen goods		14,745	18,485	17,747	14,948
Silks, half silks, and trimmi	ngs	81,102	29,861	81,314	80.496
Woollens of every description	a	122,111	110,225	126,488	117,299
Raw iron		628,176	885,850	634,186	1,197,295
Rails		561,661	505,251	565.301	796,351
Wrought iren	•	589,548	905,734	715,685	999,876
Iron plates	••	252,842	343,303	318,601	246,966
, wire		555,487	860,284	958,314	1,805,241
All other iron ware		1,475,519	1,531,692	1.618,844	1,496,221
Locomotives and engines	••	27,805	29,218	47.884	25,944
Sewing machines ,,		35,639	35,241	80,182	33,084
Other machines		852,470	318,206	320,130	290,489
Copper ware, &c	•	42,716	41,356	47,788	50,789
Lead		152,128	167,770	165,168	171,846
Zinc (raw)		267,665	242,684	281,868	826,619
" (in sheets)		62,471	62,437	61,582	88,290
Alizarine	•	85,184	35,523	27,865	24,835
Aniline colours	•	85,858	84 874	82,425	82,495
Chloride of potassinm	•	821,001	358,862	\$97,152	858,246
Glassware, ordinary	•••	259,492	230,439	817,452	283,574
,, other	• • •	181,705	124,165	139,154	133,174
Leather	••	85,392	84,858	34,797	87,397
" goods	• •	22,278	24,000	29,009	29,178
Beer	•••	876,645	485,065	639,516	640,790
Spirit	• • •	148,351	44,781	246,381	184,822
Butter and margarine		49,516	43,845	86,299	81,576
Sugar	•	4,533,350	2,865,483	1,917,568	8,810,121
Paper and paper hangings		279,070	299,808	299,918	809,530

Judging from the results of the first half-year of 1890 the Textile textile industry, which furnishes one of the principal exports of industry. Germany, seems to be reviving. But its success must not be over-estimated; it is for the present by no means considerable. From the above figures it may, perhaps, be inferred that the German textile export is in a fair way to recover from its decline. It is hoped and desired in Germany that the Government will remove all obstacles that check the development of this industry, foremost among which are the exorbitant duty on the necessaries of life, which, by enhancing prices, burden the consumption of the labouring classes, and also the duties on mixed fabrics, in the manufacture of which Germany, in spite of her exertions, is backward.

The condition of the iron industry has again become worse Iron industry, during the first half-year of 1890. Only machines and rails show an improvement. Sewing machines have remained stationary.

Raw iron, wrought iron, and iron plates have receded considerably. In wrought iron the fulling-off is enormous. Iron wire, locomotives, and the items classed as "all other ironware"

have again receded. It is a noteworthy fact that Germany has not only lost ground respecting certain classes of goods in foreign markets, but that foreign industries have successfully competed with the same classes of goods in Germany.

The imports during the first half-year amounted to—

				1890.	1889.
				Double Cwt.	Double Cwt.
Scrap iron		••		149,180	51,317
Raw "		• •	• •	2,139,724	1,011,992
Bar "		••	• • •	154,522	82,632
Iron in lumps		••		10,419	3,455
,, plates, rav	z and	polished		29,716	12,035
Tin plates	••		••	27,424	11,461
Iron wire	••	• •	•••	29,070	19,439

In the face of these figures, the theory of protection and the blessings of cornerings which specially characterised the iron industry must collapse.

Other metal industries.

As to the condition of the other metal industries it is anything but satisfactory. Only in raw zinc there is a decided improvement, although the result is below the level reached in 1888. Copper and zinc in sheets have remained stationary against 1889, while against 1887 they have declined. In lead a start was hoped for in 1889, but now it has again fallen considerably.

The glass industry has improved slightly, although it has not

yet even attained the level reached in 1888.

Leather and

In leather goods there is a falling-off, while leather shows leather goods, some improvement.

Beer. Paper. Butter. Margarine.

In the beer and paper export there was again a marked decrease. In spirit, as also in butter and margarine, the exports have increased, but this improvement weighs very little considering the heavy decline of the preceding year.

Sugar.

As regards sugar the exports were very favourable, although in France the exports in this article for the same period show a considerable excess, amounting in the first half-year of 1889 to 9,278,000 fr. (371,120*l*.), while in the first half-year of 1890 they were as high as 40,472,000 fr. (1,618,880l.).

From the above it will be seen that the condition of German

commerce is far from being satisfactory.

This state of things is rendered the more significant by the fact that the chief rivals of Germany in the world market, France and Great Britain, have, during the first half-year of 1890, again improved their conditions of trade.

Trade in France.

During the first half-year of 1889 the French imports amounted to 2,170,316,000 fr. (86,812,640L); during the first half-year of 1890 they amounted to 2,253,387,000 fr. (90,135,480l.), an increase of 83,071,000 fr. (3,322,840l.).

In this increase raw materials participate with 73,000,000 fr. (2,920,000l.), which points to an augmented activity of industry; manufacturers participate with an increase of 18,000,000 fr. (720,000l.).

In provisions the imports have decreased by 6,000,000 fr. (240,000*l*.), a symptom of the strength agriculture has regained in France.

The exports were steadily increasing during the past three first semesters; from 1889 to 1890 they amounted to 67,584,000 fr. (2,703,360*l*.). In this increase sugar and manufactures (increase 54,000,000 fr.=2,160,000*l*.) mainly participate. With reference to the manufactures, the subjoined table may serve as a guide:—

	1890.	1889.	1888.	1887.
	1,000 Fr.	1,030 Fr.	1,000 Fr.	1,000 Fr.
Silk and half-silk tissues	187,480	139,406	112,019	108,164
Woollen goods	181,651	176,114	166,848	169,091
Cotton goods	52,037	52,762	51,585	57,447
Woollen yarns	19,867	29,458	15,880	16,578
Leather	48,935	50,168	48,489	46,211
" goods	73,582	72,437	56,840	58,404
Machines	24,827	18,477	16,404	12,977
Tools of metal	41,294	87,054	82,815	81,764
Small ware	51,908	46,508	48,665	48,116
Apparel and linen	<b>80,</b> 80 <b>5</b>	22,716	27,727	28,434
Millinery goods and	•	1	1	,
artificial flowers	28,210	17,992	14,226	14,661
Sundry chemicals	20,406	19,647	17,631	18,162
Furniture	19,815	16,207	13,025	12,882
Jewllery	20,209	23,605	28,270	26,480
Glassware	16,452	12,372	11,779	12,304
Total export during first		1		,
half-year	1,822,499	1,754,915	1,531,340	1,544,154
Total in £ sterling	76,899,960	70,196,600	61,253,600	61,766,160

It may be contended that the favourable returns of France for 1889 are but a passing consequence of last year's Paris Exhibition. But then the results of 1890 prove a continuous improvement. The French export trade shows a constant improvement during the last three years, from which a sound economic condition may be inferred.

The uniform increase in the imports and exports, about 4 per cent. each, may also be regarded as an additional symptom of a

sound development.

The condition of Great Britain is likewise favourable. Trade in During the first half-year of 1889 the iniports amounted to Great Britain. 207,934,1881.; in 1890 they were 206,926,7581. This is a

decrease of 1,007,430l., about 5 per cent., for 1890.

Cotton participates largely in this decrease (2,650,000*l.*, or 11½ per cent. less). This is certainly not a good sign for the British cotton industry. In silk the imports have also decreased, while in raw metals they have increased.

The same applies to provisions.

As to the exports, the following table contains the principal figures:—

			1890.	1889.	1888.	1887.
			£	£	£	£
Cotton yarn	4.	••	6,142,611	5,814,878	6,778.265	8,475,184
,, goods	• •		29,881,246	<b>29,2</b> 68,2 <b>86</b>	29,768,746	29,021,019
Linen yarn	••		437,039	442,338	421,797	469,461
" goods	••		2,935,669	2,829,285	2,662,008	2,569,894
Silks			1,105,469	1,227,987	1,295,289	1,020,201
Woollen yarn			1,871,635	2,042,940	1,840,512	1,505,051
cloths			9,960,453	10,123,645	9,571,746	9,243,845
All kinds of te	xtiles		<b>54,</b> 601,998	54,120,246	58,122,229	51,515,296
Raw iron	••		1,875,511	1,155,581	1.066.844	1,352,534
Wrought iron		!	773.475	884,146	823,951	679,054
Railway materi			•		•	
&c.	••	.,	8,869,965	2,468,791	2,413,325	2,019,978
Wire	••		1,787,400	1,977,122	2,025,921	1,518,618
Plates	••		2,906,993	8,106,326	2,769,596	2,375,420
Other ironwar			5,221,443	4,282,512	4,026,844	8,749,736
All iron and	hardwa	<b>Te</b>	,		, ,	, , ,
together	••		15,031,787	13,484,478	18,125,489	11,977,253
Machines			7,974,197	7,092,924	6,096,590	5,134,802
Copper	••		2,188,982	1,187,269	1,531,079	1,301,634
Coal		•••	9,029,427	6, 474,926	5,093,184	4,776,090
Chemicals	••	•	4,438,238	8,914,726	8,623,971	3,860,124
Total export			127,555,965	119,409,705	112,717,915	104,295,890
		_		<u> </u>		L

As appears from the above totals, the British export increases from year to year by nearly the same sum. In 1890 the increase against 1889 amounted, on the whole, to 8,146,000*l*, or 6.8 per cent. Coal has contributed most to this start (increase 2,114,000*l*.). Metals come next, quite in contrast with the development of the German export, to the most important categories of which these industries belong.

In copper and hardware the exports have largely increased. The decrease in the export of wire, wrought-iron, and plates is balanced by the increase in other articles. Raw iron has taken quite an unusual start: during the first half-year of 1889 the export to Germany amounted to 239,3731.; in 1890 it amounted for the same period to no less a sum than 407,3994. In textiles the results were less satisfactory. Cutton yarns were chiefly exported to India, China, and Turkey. The increase in cotton goods is merely imaginary; it rests only upon an advance in price: in the quantities a slight decrease is perceptible.

Woollen yarns, woollen cloths, and linen yarns have receded. The decline in silks, which was perceptible in 1889, continues.

The export in linea goods shows a further increase.

On comparing the export trade of the three great rivals, it is clear that Germany is much worse off than either France or England. On the one hand, there are the increased imports o provisions liable to duty; on the other hand, the successful intrusion of foreign industries on the home market, and the loss of foreign markets for German manufactures.

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THE STATUS AND WORKING OF THE IMPERIAL BANK OF GERMANY.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, MARCH, 1891.

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#### GERMANY.

#### BERLIN.

The Hon. P. Le Poer Trench to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Berlin, February 16, 1891. I HAVE the honour to forward to your Lordship herewith a Memorandum, which has been very carefully drawn up by Mr. Whitehead, upon the Imperial Bank of Germany.

> I am, &c. P. LE POER TRENCH. (Signed)

Memorandum by Mr. Whitehead on the Imperial Bank of Germany.

A Bill proposing the establishment of a Central Bank for the History of the German Empire was first brought before the Reichstag on Imperial November 6, 1874. After being several times revised in Bank. committee and amended in the Reichstag, it was carried on January 30, 1875, by a large majority, and the Prussian Government having given their consent to the conversion of the Bank of Prussia into an Imperial Bank, under the conditions proposed in the Bill, the Act was finally signed by the Emperor on March 14, 1875.

A treaty was then concluded between Prussia and the German Conversion of Empire, dated May 17 and 18, 1875, by which the Bank of Prussia, the Bank of with all its privileges and obligations, was transferred to the Imperial Prussia into Government, who, on their part, passed it on to the Reichsbank.

The Prussian Government withdrew their part of the capital and reserve fund of the Bank of Prussia, and received a compensation of 15,000,000 marks (750,000l.) for its surrender.

Under the title of the Imperial Bank of Germany (Reichs-Objects and bank) a bank was established which was to be under the super-position of the control of vision and direction of the Imperial Government, and to have the Reichsbank. object of regulating the circulation of currency in the whole territory of the empire, of facilitating settlements, and promoting the employment of available capital.

It has a position differing from that of other banks, being the Central Bank of Issue of the Empire, and intended to serve the public financial purposes of the country, and not merely to consider its own profits. Hence, in the public interest, it is endowed with certain rights and obligations, and its administration is closely connected with and controlled by Government.

(1038)

Legal status of the Reichsbank. The Reichsbank has, however, the status of legal individuality, and hence its property is private property and quite distinct from that of the Government.

On the other hand, it is not to be considered and treated as a joint stock company, but has a special and exceptional position before the law, which is defined in the Bank Act and the "Statut der Reichsbank." At the same time, as a public bank, it is subject to the provisions referring to "Merchants" (Kausleuten) of the Commercial Code.

No shares held by Government.

Seat of the Th

Bank. Capital and distribution of profits.

Imperial

The Imperial Government does not hold any of the shares of the Reichsbank—all these shares being in the hands of private persons.

The Reichsbank has its principal establishment in Berlin, and is empowered to establish branches in all parts of the Empire.

The original capital ("Grund-kapital") of the Reichsbank consists of 120,000,000 marks (6,000,000l.), divided into 40,000 shares, bearing the names of the shareholders, of 3,000 marks (150l.) each.

The shareholders are not personally responsible for the

liabilities of the Reichsbank.

The net profits accruing from the operations of the bank at the end of each financial year are distributed as follows:—

(1.) A regular dividend of 31 per cent. on the original capital of the bank is paid to the shareholders.

(2.) Of the remainder 20 per cent. goes to the reserve fund

until it amounts to a quarter of the original capital.

(3.) Of the further remainder half goes to the shareholders and half to the Imperial Treasury, as long as the total dividend paid to the former does not exceed 6 per cent. Of any further surplus the shareholders get one-quarter and the Treasury three-quarters.

The above division of profits was fixed by an Act, dated December 18, 1889, and only came into force on January 1, 1891. Before that date the regular dividend amounted to  $4\frac{1}{4}$  per cent, and the division of the remainder into  $\frac{1}{4}$  and  $\frac{3}{4}$  only began when the whole shareholders' profits exceeded 8 per cent. At the end of 1889 the reserve fund had reached 24,434,700 marks (1,221,735*l*.), or over one-fifth of the original capital, so that it may be anticipated that the contributions to it under heading (2) will shortly cease. The reserve fund is now—February, 1891—about 26,000,000 marks (1,300,000*l*.).

.If the net profits do not reach 3½ per cent. on the original capital, the deficit is to be made up from the reserve fund.

The net profits of the bank for the three years (1887-89) were:--

Y	ear.		Currency.	Sterling.
			Marks.	£
1887		••	10.508.083	525,404
1888	• •		8,104,668	405,283
1889			12,900,248	645,012

#### The dividends paid to the shareholders amounted in—

Year.						Per cent.
1884						6.25
1885				••	••	6.24
1886		••		••	••	5.29
1887	••	••	• •	• •	••	6.2
1888	••	••		• •	••	5.4
1889	••	••	••	••	••	7

The supervision on the part of the Imperial Government over Constitution the affairs of the bank is exercised by a committee, entitled the and govern-Bank-Kuratorium, consisting of four members, and presided over bank. by the Chancellor of the Empire. One of the members is nominated by the Emperor, the three others by the Federal Council. This committee meets quarterly, and a full report of all the operations and transactions of the bank must be laid before it.

The direction of the bank on the part of the Imperial Board of Government is exercised by the Chancellor of the Empire, directors, and under him by the board of directors. The Chancellor of the Empire directs the whole administration of the bank within the limits of the Bank Law of 1875. He issues the necessary directions for the conduct of business to the board of directors and to the branch establishments of the bank, as well as the service instructions for its officials. He may name a deputy to exercise these functions, and is at present represented by Dr. von Boetticher, Secretary of State for the Interior.

The board of directors is the administrative and executive body of the bank, and the one which represents it as against the public. It consists of a president, a vice-president, and at present of six other members. These are proposed by the Federal Council, and nominated by the Emperor for life. The decisions of the board are arrived at by a majority of votes, but must always be in accordance with the regulations and directions laid down by

the Chancellor of the Empire.

The Reichsbank is bound by the signatures of two members of the board of directors, or of two members of the governing

board of a principal branch establishment.

The shareholders of the bank exercise their part (a very The general limited one) in its administration by means of the general meeting meeting and and a standing central committee ("Zentralausschuss") elected by committee of it. The latter represents the shareholders as against the adminis-shareholders tration of the bank, but has merely a consultative voice. It consists of 15 members and 15 deputy members, one-third of whom resign, and are elected each year in rotation.

Once in every month the weekly statements of the affairs of the bank are laid before this committee, and at the end of each financial year the balance sheet and profit and loss account are submitted to them for their opinion previously to their being

presented to the general meeting.

(1038)

Deputies of the central committee.

The special and continuous control of the administration of the bank on the part of the shareholders is exercised by three deputies chosen by the central committee for one year from among its members. These deputies have the right to attend all sittings of the board of directors with a consultative voice, as well as to study the current transactions, and have access to the books in ordinary business hours, and in the presence of a member of the board of directors.

Branch establishments of the Reichsbank.

Besides the central establishment of the bank in Berlin, there are 17 principal branch establishments in the larger towns of the Empire ("Reichsbankhauptstellen"), which are administered by a board ("Vorstand") of at least two members, presided over by a commissioner nominated by the Emperor. Each one of these principal branches should have a district committee chosen from among the shareholders resident in its neighbourhood, and with functions similar to those of the central committee of shareholders; and this district committee should again elect two or three deputies from among its members to watch over the transactions of the branch.

The principal branch establishments of the Reichsbank are at Bremen, Breslau, Cologne, Dantzig, Dortmund, Frankfort-on-Main, Hamburg, Hanover, Koenigsberg, Leipzig, Magdeburg, Mannheim, Munich, Posen, Stettin, Strasburg, and Stuttgardt.

Besides and dependent upon these 17 principal branch establishments there are (January, 1890) 221 minor branches distributed

throughout the Empire.

issue of bank notes by the Reichsbank.

The Imperial Bank is empowered by the Law of 1875 to issue regulating the notes according to its requirements, but with certain limitations. It is obliged, in the first place, to keep ready in its coffers at all times, for the purpose of covering this issue of notes, at least onethird of the total amount of the notes in circulation in current German coin, in Imperial convertible paper currency ("Reichskassenscheine"), and in gold in ingots or in foreign coin, the pound weight of fine gold calculated at 1,392 marks, and the other two-thirds in discounted bills, at not more than three months' date, endorsed by three, or at least two, well-known solvent Every single note issued by the Reichsbank must therefore be covered, at least by bills.

Limitations to issue.

The total admissible uncovered circulation of bank notes in the Empire (i.e., of bank notes covered only by discounted bills, and not by cash or bullion deposits) is fixed at 385,000,000 marks (19,250,0001). Of this the Reichsbank, as successor to the Bank of Prussia, was originally entitled to issue 250,000,000 marks (12,500,000L). This amount has been increased by 36,585,000 marks (1,829,2501.), being the uncovered circulation of 19 banks which have ceased to issue notes since the establishment of the Imperial Bank, bringing up the total allowable circulation of the latter (against discounted bills) to 286,585,000 marks (14,329,250l.).

There still remain 13 private banks of issue, with an uncovered

circulation of 98,415,000 marks (4,920,750L).

If the uncovered circulation of the Reichsbank, or of any Penalty for other bank of issue, exceeds the amount allotted to it (in the case over issue. of the Imperial Bank, therefore, 286,585,000 marks, or 14,329,250l.), the bank in question is liable by sections 9 and 10 of the Law of 1875 to a Government tax of 5 per cent. per annum upon such excess.

All banks of issue are subject to this rule, and are obliged for Method of this purpose to report the position of their issues and reserves to levying tax the office of the Imperial Chancellor on the 7th, 15th, 23rd, and on over issue. last day of every month. The tax to which they are liable is then calculated at 48 per cent. of the excess shown by each of these statements. At the end of the year these items are added together and give the total tax, which must be paid in before the 31st of January.

The Imperial Bank has repeatedly become liable to this tax

since 1881, before which year it was not levied, viz.:—

	Year.		1	Month.		Amount.
					_	Marks pf.
1881		• •		December 31		27,179 84
1882				September 30		20,025 10
,,	• •			October 7		12,692 96
1884				December 31		84,040 82
1885	••			January 7		2,724 30
1886	• •			December 31		35,584 70
1889	••	••		September 30		74,816 87
29	••		• •	October 7		51,797 85
92	••	• •	•••	December 31	••	114,089 16
Tot	al			••		372,900 60
Or	••	• •	••	••	1	£18,600

The total note circulation (average for each year) of the Average issue, Imperial Bank was:—

	Ye	ar.	Currency.	Sterling.	
1887	••	•••	Marks. 860,617,000	£ 43,080,850	•
1888 1889	••	••	933,042,000 987,314,000	46,652,100 49,365,700	

The average amount of gold in the bank (in German and Average foreign coin and ingots) was as follows:—

bullion reserve, 1887-89.

	Yea	ur.		Currency.	Sterling.		
1887 1888 1889	::	••	••	Marks. 772,363,000 903,403,000 871,592,000	£ 38,618,150 45,170,150 43,579,600		
			- 1	•	l		

Percentage of notes covered by gold deposits.

The proportion, therefore, of the bank notes of the Imperial Bank, which were covered by gold deposits to the whole circulation, was (on the average for each year) in-

1887	 		 ••		Per cent. 89.75
	 		 		2.2.2.2
1888	 • •	• •	 	• •	<b>96</b> ·82
1889	 		 		88.28

Maximum **bullion** reserve in 1889.

During the year 1889, the last for which a report has been and minimum issued, the minimum bullion reserve was 734,579,000 marks (36,728,950l.), and the maximum 963,013,000 marks (48,150,650l.).

Denomina-

The Imperial Bank, in common with other banks of emission, can only issue notes of 100 marks, 200 marks, 500 marks, tions of notes. 1,000 marks, or multiples of 1,000 marks. Up to the present it has not issued notes of 200 marks, or of more than 1,000 marks.

By far the greatest part of the amount in circulation is in notes of 100 marks.

Government paper currency of smaller denomina-Kassenscheine").

Besides the notes of the Imperial Bank, and of the 13 other banks of issue in Germany, Government paper money of smaller denominations is in circulation. The Imperial Government was authorised by the Law of April 30, 1874, to issue 120,000,000 tions ("Reichs marks (6,000,0001.) of paper money in notes of 5 marks, 20 marks, and 50 marks ("Reichs Kassenscheine").

> This was originally intended to take the place of the paper money formerly in circulation in different States of the Empire, and was distributed among them according to their population.

> To States whose paper currency exceeded the amount thus allotted to them, a temporary advance of two-thirds of the excess was made, partly in coin and partly in Imperial paper money.

At the end of March, 1889, the position of this issue of Govern-

ment paper was as follows:--

Original issue Extraordinary iss					ent Sta	ites	Marks. 120,000,000 <b>54</b> ,123,565
Total	••			••			174,123,565
Withdrawn and d	estroyed	••	••	••	••	••	47,571,160
Leaving	••		••	••	••	••	128,552,405
Or.,							£6.327.650

These notes are accepted at their full value in all payments to the Imperial or State Governments, and are convertible into gold at sight at the Reichsbank, by whom the money so disbursed is debited to the Government account. In private transactions "their acceptance is not compulsory," but practically they are in general use (see Annex I., p. 43, &c.).

Bank notes convertible at sight.

The Imperial Bank is bound to redeem its notes in current German coin on presentation at its principal establishment in Berlin, and also at its branch establishments, in so far as their cash supply admits of it.

Notes given for bullion deposits.

It is also bound to give notes in exchange for ingots of gold, the pound weight of fine gold being calculated at the fixed rate of 1,392 marks, but has the right of having the bullion assayed at the expense of the depositor.

The manufacture, emission, recall and destruction of notes of Manufacture the Imperial Bank is watched over by the Commission of the Public and recall of Debt ("Reichssebulden Commission"), an additional member, notes. nominated by the Emperor, being added to it for this purpose.

As explained above (see sections 25, 26, and 27 of the Law of Relations of 1875), the administration of the Imperial Bank is entirely in the Imperial Bank to the hands of the Chancellor of the Empire, and the board of directors Government. appointed by the Imperial Government, the committee of share-

holders having a merely consultative voice.

The officials employed in the Reichsbank are, to all intents Position, and purposes, Imperial officials, except that their salaries, pensions, salaries, &c., &c., are paid by the bank. They are appointed by the Chancellor of officials of the Empire or by the bank. of the Empire, or by the president of the board of directors acting for him.

The estimates for salaries and pensions of members of the board of directors form part of the Imperial estimates, and are submitted to the Reichstag every year. The salaries and pensions of the other officials of the bank are fixed by the Emperor and Federal Council upon the proposal of the Chancellor of the Empire.

No official employed in the bank can be a shareholder.

According to the Act of 1875 the accounts of the Imperial Audit of Bank should be revised by the Audit Office of the German Empire accounts. ("Rechnungshof des Deutschen Reichs"). They are regularly transferred, however, by a yearly Bill to the Prussian Audit Office ("Preussische Oberrechnungskammer").

By section 22 of the Bank Act the Imperial Bank is bound to Payments and receive payments on behalf of the Imperial Government, and to receipts on make payments for them up to the amount of the Government account. balance in its books, free of charge or commission. It is, in fact, the Government banker, but cannot make the usual banking charges (see section 11 of the "Statut der Reichsbank").

The bank may undertake the same duties for States of the Empire, on conditions to be agreed upon, and has done so for

Prussia and Baden.

Should it, however, wish to enter into financial transactions other than the above with the Imperial Government or the Governments of German States, and which do not come within the rules laid down for its ordinary banking business (see below), such transactions must be submitted to the approval of the deputies of the shareholders, and, at their request, to the central committee.

The Imperial Bank and all its branches are exempt through- Exemptions out the Empire from the State (local) income and trade taxes, from taxation. but not from municipal rates, nor from other State taxes, such as

those on land and buildings.

Although the property of the bank is distinct from that of the The Imperial Government, the latter claims, as explained above, a cer-dovernment takes part of tain proportion of any surplus profits that may result from its the prouts, but operations. There is no guarantee, however, on the part of the gives no Imperial Government towards the shareholders to counter guarantee in balance this.

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The Government may acquire the bank by purchase. By section 41 of the Bank Act, the Imperial Government reserved to itself the right, either (a) of abolishing the Imperial Bank and taking over the land and buildings belonging to it at the valuation price, or (b) of acquiring all the shares at par.

This right could first have been exercised, with one year's notice, on January 1, 1891, and thenceforward at intervals of ten years. In either case the reserve fund, in so far as it was not required to cover losses, was to be divided in equal parts between the shareholders and the Imperial Government. Supposing, therefore, that the reserve fund had reached the legal limit of one quarter of the original capital (30,000,000 marks, or 1,500,000l.), the shareholders would thus receive 135,000,000 marks (6,750,000l.), or 112½ per cent. of their original outlay. No notice was given, however, at the end of the year 1889, and the relations of the bank to the Government remain, therefore, as originally fixed by the Bank Act. The next term when such notice can be given will be December 31, 1899.

Relations of the Imperial Bank to other banks.

Business

bank is

which the

authorised to engage in. The Imperial Bank is bound to accept the notes of other duly authorised banks of issue at their full nominal value (at its principal establishment in Berlin, and at its branches in towns of over 80,000 inhabitants), as long as those banks punctually fulfil their engagements as to the convertibility of the notes. It cannot, however, bring such notes into circulation again, but must either use them in payments to the bank which has issued them, or present them for conversion.

The Imperial Bank may agree with any other German bank

of issue to take over its circulation.

A clearing-house has been established at the Reichsbank in Berlin, and at its branch offices at Frankfort-on-Main and Hamburg, at which an exchange is effected for the purpose of balancing the mutual demands and obligations of banking firms. Such firms must be specially entered as members of the Reichsbank clearing-house.

By Article 13 of the Law of 1875, the Imperial Bank is

authorised to carry on the following business:

1. To buy and sell gold and silver in ingots or in coin.

2. To buy, sell, or discount bills of exchange payable not more than three months' after date, and which are endorsed by three, or at least two, well-known solvent backers. Also to buy and sell Imperial Treasury bills, those of States of the Empire, or bills of German municipal corporations, which are payable not more than three months after date.

3. To make advances, bearing interest, against deposits of bullion, stock, and bills of exchange, or upon liens on goods deposited in the country. The article lays down in detail up to what proportion of the value of different kinds of deposits such

advances may be made.

4. To buy and sell Imperial Government stock, Government stock of the States of the Empire, or stock of German municipal corporations, or of undertakings having a guarantee of interest from the Imperial or one of the State Governments. The limit

up to which the working capital of the bank may be invested in such securities is fixed in the general regulations for the conduct of the business of the bank issued by the Chancellor of the Empire, but it must also be approved by the central committee of shareholders.

5. To receive and make payments (in the latter case with previous sufficient security) for private persons, companies, or corporations, either directly or through its branch establishments or correspondents.

6. To buy and sell bullion or stock on commission. In the former case (buying) full security must be previously given, in the latter the effects must be actually delivered to the bank.

- the latter the effects must be actually delivered to the bank.
  7. To open deposit accounts. The total of the interest bearing deposits must not exceed that of the original capital of the bank and the reserve fund.
- 8. To undertake the custody and administration of articles of value.

The Imperial Bank is bound to make known publicly its rate Publication of discount, and the rate of interest at which it makes advances of rate of under heading 3.

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1891.

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#### GERMANY.

#### FRANKFORT.

Acting Consul-General Goldbeck to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Frankfort-on-Main, March 5, 1891.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship a short Memorandum which I have just written—"Advice and Hints to British Tourists and Residents in Germany," which I

trust will meet with your Lordship's approval.

The world-famed Rhine and the numerous fashionable watering places, Homburg, Wiesbaden, Ems, Baden-Baden, &c., situated within this Consular district, attract yearly an ever-increasing number of English visitors, some of whom, as your Lordship is aware, have unfortunately hitherto met with difficulties and annoyances of a more or less serious character.

I have tried by means of this report to enable English travellers to avoid these incidents as much as possible by drawing their attention to those points, the knowledge of which, as experience

has shown me, would prove most beneficial.

I have, &c. (Signed) BERNHARD GOLDBECK.

Advice and Hints to British Tourists and Residents in Germany.

The many unpleasantnesses which befall British tourists travelling abroad, and for which redress is often sought at the hands of Her Majesty's representatives (as a reference to their archives would readily confirm), has induced the writer to offer a few hints, which he trusts may be serviceable to all those who intend making a more or less lengthened stay on the Continent. It may be mentioned that, although most of these remarks may apply to other countries, the writer intends confining his observations mainly to Germany.

One of the foremost duties impressed on British Consular officers is that of giving their advice and assistance to Her Majesty's subjects in difficulties. It is, therefore, thought that in trying to enable travellers, or English residents abroad, to avoid, if not all the difficulties, at least those to which long experience has shown they are most liable to be exposed, a service would be rendered not only to those who are travelling, but also

(1052)

to the Consular corps, before whom, in numerous instances, matters are laid and advice is sought when it is too late for them to intervene effectually.

Passports.

In the regulations respecting passports issued by the Foreign Office the following remarks will be found:—"Although British subjects are now free to enter Belgium, France, Germany, Holland, Italy, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway without passports, and the rules about the same have been virtually relaxed in other countries; nevertheless, British subjects about to visit the Continent are recommended not to omit to provide themselves with passports, for even in those countries where they are no longer obligatory they are found to be convenient as affording a ready means of identification, and more particularly when letters

have to be claimed at the poste-restante."

To the above official remarks it may be added that although persons who are only making a short stay on the Continent, or travelling from place to place, may not find it necessary to produce their passports, yet anyone who intends making any prolonged stay in Germany, and especially in Prussia, will find it absolutely necessary to have such a document, as according to the police regulations (Melde-Ordnung) house-owners, lodginghouse-keepers, tenants, or other persons lodging strangers, are bound to report within three days the arrival of any new comer, when official proofs of identity are invariably demanded. Although it is true that Consular officers are entitled to issue passports, travellers should bear in mind that these are more expensive than those obtainable at the Foreign Office, and that they have naturally less facilities for proving their identity abroad than at home; and if, as frequently happens, the Consul may not consider the identity of the claimant sufficiently established, and decline to grant a passport, the traveller may find himself in a very awkward predicament.

Passport regulations in Alsace-Lorraine.

While writing these pages the Imperial order with reference to the passports regulations in Alsace-Lorraine has been reinforced; and it is desirable to caution all foreigners entering Alsace-Lorraine from France, whether they intend merely passing through or making any lengthened stay in the Reichsland, that they must without exception have a passport bearing the visa of the German Embassy at Paris, such visa not to be older than one year, nor will any other certificate be accepted in its place. Foreigners not provided with the regulation passports are not allowed to continue their journey, and are liable to be sent back across the frontier.

Money.

Although it will, doubtless, strike every reader as self-evident that persons about to travel in a foreign land should take a sufficient supply of money, or at all events notes that are easily convertible, yet the fact that so many applications regarding pecuniary difficulties are made to Consuls proves that sufficient prudence is often not exercised in this matter. The attention of travellers cannot be too frequently drawn to the point, that their cheques on English banks are not easily converted into money.

Surely they cannot expect to find greater facilities in a foreign country for paying hotel bills, or others, than they meet with at home, where the significant notice—"Cheques not accepted in payment"—often strikes the traveller's eye.

It may be added here that even letters of credit, though easily negotiable in larger centres, may prove utterly useless in towns

where the banking business is not sufficiently developed.

But the fact that strikes the writer as most strange is, that Consuls have sometimes requests made to them for monetary assistance on the part of British tourists, who appear to have calculated their expenses previous to their departure from home on too modest a scale. It must be obvious that, for such cases, the Consuls have no funds at their disposal, and they are naturally loth to grant loans out of their private means: considering, therefore, how simple a matter it is to take home any unspent money, it is inexcusable in people to start on their journey with an insufficient supply, as this may contribute to delays, and even prevent their reaching home at a date when their presence may be absolutely necessary.

Before starting for the Continent it would be wise to make a Residences note of the towns where British representatives are stationed, as and office well as of their addresses, and, if possible, their office hours, so British reprethat no delay need occur in cases of emergency. Many difficulties sentatives. might, without doubt, be avoided, if visitors would think of calling on Consuls when they are desirous of any special information, as experience has proved that it is very often the lack of this information that has brought about the troubles in which the parties find

themselves involved subsequently.

It is always advisable for persons who have had little or no Journey. experience in continental travelling, or who are not adepts at the language, to map out their routes accurately, and before starting on a journey to obtain every information in their power with regard to the hours of departure of trains and boats from officials who are in a position to give them the requisite details in English, as, after once having started, they may experience great difficulties in finding any one able to enlighten them on any point on which they may require information.

Special attention should be paid to the regulation that only Children's children under the age of 10 are allowed to travel-at half price. tickets.

Any infringement of this by-law is severely punished.

English travellers, too, must bear in mind that most of the railways in Germany are State property, and worked on a stricter system than is in vogue in England, where the rivalry existing between the different lines enables travellers to enjoy many comforts (besides the supreme boon of rapid travelling), which cannot be expected in a country where the convenience of passengers, though by no means neglected, is not allowed to interfere with the revenues of the State.

In explanation of the foregoing, English travellers, at the height of the sesson, are often unreasonable in expecting guards to grant them the privilege of a compartment to themselves, which (1052)

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would, if conceded, have the effect of crowding the ordinary travelling public to excess. The numerous packages, too, which they proverbially find it necessary to have with them are often complained of by continental fellow travellers, who, on entering a compartment, frequently find no room for their own modest hand luggage.

Customs.

From the railway carriage to the custom-house is but a step, so that tourists should not omit having their luggage examined at the frontier. It appears that many travellers passing there during the night do not take the trouble to alight for the general examination, and the consequence is that, on arrival at their destinations, they learn that their effects have been detained at the frontier, and that they must undergo the annoyance of waiting five or six days before receiving them; whereas their boxes would have been looked over at the right place in a few minutes, if at all; they will otherwise be very closely examined by officials much less accustomed to through travellers than their colleagues at the frontier.

Tourists with little travelling experience very often even omit to attend the examination of their luggage when passing the frontier in the day time; this seems all the more inconceivable, as in most cases their tickets mention the name of the place where such examination is to be held; besides, as our own experience shows, the official, who registers the luggage in England, generally informs the traveller once more that this luggage will be examined at the custom-house mentioned on the luggage ticket he delivers him. German custom-house regulations, with regard to new articles of dress, are somewhat stringent, and travellers must not be surprised at finding themselves called upon to pay duty accordingly.

Pickpockets.

While on the subject of travelling it is as well to warn the public particularly against the numerous and adroit pick-pockets who infest the more important junctions on the Rhine, as we have had during the last summer several complaints from parties who had been robbed on their journey. One of these unfortunate victims had lost, not only his valuables and money, but also his railway and hotel coupons and even his passport. It may readily be imagined how difficult it will prove in such a situation to bring satisfactory evidence of one's identity such as would justify the issue of a Consular passport in lieu of the stolen document. English travellers are, therefore, earnestly cautioned to be especially on their guard on the crowded Rhine steamers, as well as on the platforms and in the refreshment-rooms of the railway stations, which are so thronged during the summer months.

Homburg var der Höhe (near Frankfort). Travellers who intend visiting Homburg ought to be very careful at the booking-office to see that it is really a ticket for Homburg (near Frankfort-on-Main) they get, and not one for Hamburg, as this is a mistake which we hear happens nearly every year. Similar precautions should be taken in giving directions

before leaving home, so that any letters or telegrams may bear the address "Homburg v. d. H." (vor der Höhe) distinctly written. We may mention that there are six Homburgs in Germany, besides two in Alsace-Lorraine, and another in Switzerland. is stated that a great number of letters and telegrams directed to English visitors staying in Homburg are, on account of their illegible addresses, sent to Hamburg, where they remain uncalled for and unclaimed at the poste-restante, whilst their owners may be most anxiously awaiting them.

The love of sight-seeing so developed in British travellers will German forhave to be slightly restrained when visiting the vicinity of tresses. There is no trifling with the caution German fortresses. "verbotener Weg" (forbidden ground), and in fact it must prove dangerous to overstep any such injunction, nor should any one sketch points of view where trespassers may expose themselves

to unpleasant detention or even imprisonment.

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When parties contemplate making any lengthened stay in a Lodging and boarding-house it is always well to have the terms agreed upon boarding in a written form, as by this means any subsequent disputes are writing. avoided, and verbal agreements between English and German might have been misunderstood on both sides. This is especially necessary when lodgings are engaged for any time. The lessee should always remember that the landlord can, in accordance with local laws, claim the payment of an indemnity when notice is suddenly given, unless special terms have previously been arranged. It would always be well to ask the Consul's advice before drawing up any document, as the latter, unless legally attested, may, through some informality, prove useless. trifling expense thus incurred would be amply repaid by the feeling of security, as well as of immunity from annoyance or unjust claims on the part of the landlord.

In case of disputes with cabdrivers, or in public conveyances, &c., Disputes. a person should in all cases go without loss of time to the nearest police-station and lodge a complaint, as otherwise the other party may be first in the field and obtain an authority to act before both sides of the question have been heard, thus producing great annoyance. The writer feels all the more justified in laying stress on the advice not to neglect taking prompt action, as only last year he was called upon to intervene in a matter when a lady's jewellery was actually seized on an order from the court, as she had unfortunately not taken the trouble to communicate with

the police and give her version of the matter in dispute.

In cases of orders given to tradespeople for goods of an Ordering of exceptional character, it would be wise to give an exact descrip- goods to be tion of the article ordered in writing, which the merchant should done in also indorse; instances have occurred where disputes have arisen from the simple fact that the purchasers maintained having ordered something quite different, whereas the merchant declared that the goods delivered were exactly as ordered; of course such cases may happen anywhere, but they will always be more frequent and complicated when different languages are spoken,

If, for example, an English buyer refuses to accept, say, a piece of furniture on the ground that it is not at all in accordance with his order; now, convinced as he is that the tradesman had understood him perfectly when he gave the order, he will declare that he is not going to be treated thus because he is a foreigner, whereas, on the other hand, the tradesman is by no means willing to submit, as he would say, to the whims and fancy of the Englishman, who has ordered something quite out of the common, and which it would be quite impossible to dispose of to any other purchaser; hence lawsuits and endless worry, which might by a few lines in black and white have been easily avoided.

Cvercharges.

Cases, have also arisen in which bills have been sent in to English tourists, visitors at watering places, or permanent residents for medical or other attendances—the amounts of which were not at all in proportion to services rendered. In such cases any municipal magistrate or police official of the place would, if applied to, willingly advise what steps ought to be taken to have the claim reduced to the proper amount.

Imprisonment for debts.

In close connection with the above is the following very important hint. Beware of running up bills with tradespeople, as according to still existing local laws in certain German towns foreigners may on account of debts be imprisoned, if it is suspected that they intend leaving the country before settling their

Engagement of servants.

Certain precautions are also necessary in engaging servants; an agreement ought to be drawn up, wherein the question of discharge must be clearly defined, as if they think they have a claim against their masters they are very often induced by fellowservants to institute legal proceedings, which, even if satisfactorily arranged in the end, will be certain to prove very annoying for the time being, and might impede an intended departure, or otherwise involve a deposit in a court of law.

English travellers, who intend engaging servants or couriers at home, may, with advantage, be very careful as regards the stipulations and conditions on which they are to accompany them abroad, as the sudden discharge of such servants in Germany

may produce the unpleasantnesses above referred to.

Commercial travellers.

Commercial travellers, if they carry goods with them for sale, require a special license for that purpose, and they will have to inquire at the police-station, where such certificate is to be obtained. Travellers not provided with this "Gewerbeschein" are liable to a heavy fine.\*

Governesses, service a broad.

Governesses, nurses, artisans, &c., who have accepted an &c., accepting engagement abroad, through advertisements or any other means, ought not to leave their homes without having, previous to their departure, obtained a written agreement signed by some responsible party, which contains a special proviso that the return fare will

<sup>\*</sup> For detailed regulations respecting commercial travellers in Germany, vide Parliamentary Paper, No. 14 Commercial, 1890 [C. 5970], pp. 7-11.—ED.

be allowed them in case their services are not deemed satisfactory after a trial of a stipulated period. The greatest caution in this respect is necessary, as, if once discharged, it will be extremely difficult, almost impossible, for them to find another situation, and they would be doomed to misery in a foreign country, as unfortunately too many cases have proved.

Before finishing these remarks there is another very important Taxes, point to touch on. British residents in Germany, if living in houses or in flats which they have furnished, are subject to the German income and other taxes after a sojourn of one year, in some districts even sooner. The fact that they are paying taxes in England would not exempt them from those levied here.

As regards the new income-tax, now under consideration in the Prussian Parliament, strangers who already pay income-tax at home ought to make careful inquiries before settling down, and advice on this important subject, involving as it may rather heavy expenses, should always be asked from a local lawyer of good standing and repute.

Births or deaths ought to be reported without loss of time Births and to the nearest British Consulate, particularly the latter, when deaths.

Consular assistance may be of great importance.

It may be added that if it is not for economy's sake that a German towns sojourn in Germany is contemplated, but for other purposes, recomega, for the sake of the musical or general education of children, mended there are many German towns, such as Berlin, Hanover, Frankfort, Wiesbaden, Heidelberg, Freiburg, Leipzig, Dresden, &c., which cannot be too highly recommended; the expenses, if not very moderate, might easily be brought to the level of those at home. German families, too, are very hospitable towards foreigners, to whom they gladly open their houses, and contribute to make their stay very pleasant and agreeable.

In conclusion, though the writer is not sanguine enough to hope that he will be able, by means of the above hints offered to English readers, to remove all the difficulties and worries which may befall British subjects when travelling abroad, he is, however, convinced that by adopting the advice herein laid down, they will find that the pleasure of their journeys would be considerably enhanced, many annoyances be avoided, and that they would find among a kindred nation that great boon which Germans

themselves style "English comfort."

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#### No. 180.

Reference to previous Report, Miscellaneous Series No. 141.

#### ITALY.

#### FLORENCE.

Consul-General Sir D. E. Colnaghi to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Florence, August 1, 1890.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship, herewith enclosed, some Notes on the Metal Industries of the Province of Florence, in continuation of my Report on the Industries of this Province, published in Number 141 of the Miscellaneous Series issued by the Foreign Office in August of last year.

I have, &c. (8igned) D. E. COLNAGHI.

Notes on the Metal Industries of the Province of Florence.

IRON WORKS, IRON AND BRONZE FOUNDRIES, MANUFACTURERS OF AGRICULTURAL AND OTHER MACHINERY, WORKS IN HAMMERED IRON, &c.

In the province of Florence, which is more agricultural than Preliminary industrial, the foundries and other works are of relative importance only, and, owing to the restricted market, generally produce a large variety of articles. Those in existence, however, always find work to do, and their number is on the increase. The introduction of improved methods of working has permitted a larger use of cast-iron, thus lessening the cost of production. Progress is still hampered by strong foreign competition, and by the general trade depression of late years, which, however, appears to be lightening.

Against foreign competition protective duties in favour of Italian industry were loudly called for by native manufacturers, (968)

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and, finally, conceded under the General Customs' Tariff of 1888. The rise in the duties, notwithstanding competition, does not appear to have decreased, nor have prices risen. For instance, water and gas pipes, which ten years ago are stated to have been quoted at from 35 lire to 40 lire per 100 kilos., now fetch from 17 lire to 20 lire, though there is no great difference in the price of pig-iron; while stair and balcony railings have fallen in price from 40 lire to 50 lire and 25 lire to 27 lire per 100 kilos. Part of the difference may, however, be explained by the existence of the forced paper currency in Italy at the earlier date. Still the fall in price is clear, though the margin is not so large.

The Tuscan wrought-iron (ferro al maglio) once so much appreciated is now only in demand for the manufacture of agricultural implements, and the production tends to cease. Special attention is paid to the manufacture of oil and wine presses, and recent exhibitions have shown that this branch of the

industry is making great strides in advance.

According to the census of 1881, in the province of Florence, 5,662 persons (5,626 males and 36 females) were engaged in the working of metals, of whom A (masters)\* 1,523, and B (workmen)\* 4,139. These figures include the blacksmiths, farriers, coppersmiths, and tinsmiths found in all parts of the province.

In the manufacture of machines and similar works, always according to the census, 1,216 persons (1,212 males and 4 females) were engaged, of whom A 172, and B 1,216. Among the latter are included 87 machinists and 73 firemen. Added together the above figures give a total of 6,878 persons engaged in the metal industries in this province, classed according to the following table:—

<sup>\*</sup> A. includes masters and heads of factories, also members of the masters' families who work at their trade without receiving wages, and artisans working on their own account. B. includes all earners of wages.

				ł	Males,	Fema!es
Workers in bar-iron, and wire	and cast-	ron for	nders	14	13	
was and and and and	. <b></b>			] B	182	1
Founders of brass, bronze and	d other me	tallic a	llova	[▲	55	2
				l B	370	1
Smiths, burnishers and nail n	nakers	••	••	{ <u>A</u>	962 <b>2</b> ,°57	1 1
				[B	186	1
Makers of horse-shoes and fa	rriers	• •	••	<b>₹</b>	260	<b>†</b>
a				} 🛣	181	2
Coppersmiths	• ••	• •	-•	15	682	
Tre				المآ	207	18
Tinemiths and pewterers .	• ••	• •	••	1 B	222	7
Founders of leaden tubes and	1 -A4-			ĨA	1	
Lornders of leaden pubes since	i seruis	••	••	1B	4	1
Typefounders				J.A.	1	
a peroduder	• ••	••	••	Į ₽	25	7
Total				54	1,506	19
10001	• •,	••	,.	Į B ∣	4,120	17
General total	• :•	••	••		5,626	86
Manufacturers of machines a	nd mechai	nisma		[A	70	1
•		•	. ';	) B	589	••
Manufacturers of ploughs aments	ind agricu	itorai :	imbie-	{A B	Б 13	1 ::
Cutlers.				] [	52	
Outliets, .	• ••	••	••	<b>₹</b> Β	242	2
Manufacturers of weights an	d measure			J A	18	
	u mousure	• ••	••	ĮΒ	18	1
Machinists	• ••	••	••		87	••
Firemen ,	, , ··	••	••	B	78	1
Manufacturers of carpenters'		••	• •	<b>♣</b>	.1	<b>···</b>
Manufacturers of mill stones	••	••	••		17 18	••
Opticians	• ••	••	••	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{B} \end{array} \right\}$	24	i i
·				ſ.	171	<del>                                     </del>
Total	• ••	••	••	{ B	1,041	8
General total		••	••		1,212	4
Combined totals .				ľ	6,888	40

If to the above are added the carpenters and labourers employed on the several works, the total number of hands probably approaches 8,000.

The majority of the establishments in the province of Florence Character of are small, as the number of masters compared with that of the establishworkmen shows; they give employment only to a few hands, and ments.

are of local rather than of general importance.

The supply of pig-iron required for the use of the foundries supply of comes from Great Britain and from Follonica. The iron used is first materials Italian, Belgian, German, English, and French: the steel comes and from Austria, Germany, and Sweden, occasionally from England.

The machinery and machine tools, engines, &c., are chiefly German, French, or Swiss, though Italian engines are now to be (968)



met with in some works. The use of British machine tools is declining, I am told, on account of their high price, as compared with those of German manufacture. Agricultural machines, however, still hold their position.

German travellera Manufacturers state that the exertions of German travellers to push their trade are indefatigable, and as they are always anxious to comply with the desires of their customers they are often successful, while British firms, instead of travellers, forward catalogues, which are of little or no use, especially as they are for the most part drawn up in English, and prices are quoted in English weights and measures.

Hours of labour.

The daily hours of labour in the principal factories are usually 10 net, though in some cases they may be 11. Work is not as a rule carried on on Sundays. In the railway workshops work, in summer, commences at 6 a.m., lasting till 11 a.m., and is resumed at 1 p.m. till 6 p.m. In winter the hours are from 7 a.m. till noon, and from 1.30 to 6.30 p.m.

Wages.

The following figures may serve to give an idea of the current rates of wages paid to the hands in the foundries and mechanical workshops. They refer to the principal establishments only, but, except perhaps as regards the foreman, may be considered as the normal rates for Florence. It is necessary to observe, however, that these figures are only approximative, since much depends on the manner in which the workmen are paid, whether by piece-work or by daily wages. It often happens that the daily wages are fixed at low rates, but the hands are able to earn more, working at so much per hour or by piece-work, on the basis of the fixed rates of pay. Wages are usually paid weekly:—

		Per 1	Diem.
Foundries —		Lire c.	Lire c.
Master foreman		••	7 50
Gauger		••	6 00
Moulders		2 80	5 00
" for tabings		2 50	3 00
Apprentices		1 QQ	2 00
Other hands		1 80	3 00
Mechanical workshops -			
Master foreman		••	9 00
Gauger		••	5 50
Turners		8 00	4 50
Hands at planing machines			8 00
" boring "		2 80	8 50
Carpenters (modellers)		2 80	5 50
Apprentices		1 20	2 00
Fitters (erectors)		2 00	5 00
Labourers		2 00	2 20
Smith's shops—	- 1		
Blacksmiths		3 50	5 50
apprentices		•••	2 00
Hands at forge hammer		2 00	2 80
Operatives (various)		2 00	2 20

Locksmiths are paid from 1 lire 30 c. to 3 lire per diem,

working from 10 to 12 hours net.

At the "Officina Galileo," a scientific instrument factory (noticed later), the following were the rates of wages paid in

Clerk   Lire e.   Maximum   S		Daily Wages.	Number of Hands
Average	Clerk-	Lire e.	
Minimum     2 50   3	Maximum	5 b9	1
Minimum       250         Draughtamen       700         Maximum       700         Average       350         Minimum       270         Constructors (congegnatori)       750         Master foreman       600         Taximum       500         Ordinary hands       380         Smiths. ordinary hands       25         Maximum       400         Average       320         Minimum       250         Moulders (fonditori e staffatori)         Maximum       400         Average       600         Minimum       250         Carpenters and modellers       450         Master foreman       450         Ordinary hands       average         minimum       240         Opticians and watchmakers       450         Maximum       450	Average	8 50	1
Maximum       7 00       1         Average       3 50       2         Minimum       2 70       1         Constructors (congegnatori)—       7 50       3         Master foreman       7 50       3         Ordinary hands       8 00       25         Smiths, ordinary hands—       3 90       25         Smiths, ordinary hands—       4 00       1         Average       3 20       1         Minimum       2 50       1         Moulders (fonditori e staffatori)—       4 00       1         Average       6 00       3         Minimum       2 50       1         Carpenters and modellers—       4 50       1         Master foreman       4 50       3         Ordinary hands       3 30       1         minimum       2 40       2         Opticians and watchmakers—       4 50       3		2 50	3
Maximum       7 00       1         Average       3 50       2         Minimum       2 70       1         Constructors (congegnatori)—       7 50       3         Master foreman       7 50       3         Ordinary hands       8 00       25         Smiths, ordinary hands—       3 90       25         Smiths, ordinary hands—       4 00       1         Average       3 20       1         Minimum       2 50       1         Moulders (fonditori e staffatori)—       4 00       1         Average       6 00       3         Minimum       2 50       1         Carpenters and modellers—       4 50       1         Master foreman       4 50       3         Ordinary hands       3 30       1         minimum       2 40       2         Opticians and watchmakers—       4 50       3	Draughtsmen-		
Average	Mandanana	7 00	1
Minimum       2 70       1         Constructors (congegnatori)—       7 50       3         Master foreman       6 00       13         Ordinary hands       3 80       25         minimum       3 90       20         Smiths. ordinary hands—       4 00       1         Maximum       3 20       1         Minimum       3 50       1         Moulders (fonditori e staffatori)—       4 00       1         Average       6 00       3         Minimum       2 50       1         Carpenters and modellers—       4 50       1         Master foreman       4 50       3         Ordinary hands       average       3 30       1         minimum       2 40       2         Opticians and watchmakers—       4 50       8		8 50	2
Constructors (congegnatori)—  Master foreman			
Master foreman			
Ordinary hands	Manten foreman	7 50	8
Ordinary hands   average   minimum   3 00 25         Smiths. ordinary hands   Maximum     4 00   1         Average     3 20   1         Minimum   2 50   1         Maximum     4 00   1         Average     6 00   3         Minimum   2 50   1         Carpenters and modellers   Master foreman   4 50   1         Ordinary hands   average   3 30   1         minimum   4 00   3         Opticians and watchmakers   Maximum   4 50   3			18
minimum   3 90   26			25
Smiths. ordinary hands—       4 00 1         Maximum       3 20 1         Average       3 20 1         Minimum       5 4 00 1         Maximum       4 00 1         Average       6 00 8         Minimum       2 50 1         Carpenters and modellers—       4 50 1         Master foreman       4 50 1         Ordinary hands       3 30 1         minimum       2 40 2         Opticians and watchmakers—       4 50 8			20
Maximum       4       00       1         Average       3       20       1         Minimum       2       50       1         Maximum       4       00       1         Average       6       00       3         Minimum       2       50       1         Carpenters and modellers       4       50       1         Master foreman       4       50       3         Ordinary hands       3       30       1         minimum       2       40       2         Opticians and watchmakers       4       50       8			
Average	W!	4 00	1
Minimum   2 50   1		3 20	1
Maximum       4 00       1         Average       6 00       3         Minimum       2 50       1         Carpenters and modellers—       4 50       1         Master foreman       4 00       3         Ordinary hands       average       3 30       1         minimum       2 40       2         Opticians and watchmakers—       4 50       2	Mr		1 1
Maximum       4 00       1         Average       6 00       3         Minimum       2 50       1         Carpenters and modellers—       4 50       1         Master foreman       4 00       3         Ordinary hands       average       3 30       1         minimum       2 40       2         Opticians and watchmakers—       4 50       2	Moulders (fonditori e staffatori)-		ł
Average	V	4 00	1 1
Minimum		8 00	8
Master foreman		2 50	1
Master foreman	Carpenters and modellers—	1	
Ordinary hands average 3 30 1 minimum 2 40 2 Opticians and watchmakers— Maximum 4 50 2		4 50	l 1
minimum	(maximum	4 00	
Opticians and watchmakers—	Ordinary hands   average	3 30	1
Opticians and watchmakers—	minimum	2 40	2
Maximum 4 50 2		ì '	
Average	7 Maria de la companya del companya della companya	4 50	8
V:-:		8 70	. 4
	Minimum	2 80	
Labourers or porters, average 2 20 6		2 20	
Apprentices, average 1 20 20			20

N.B.—Ordinary day's work, 10 hours. Number of days work per annum, about 805.

Payments are made weekly and exclusively in cash. Every Mode of Saturday the accounts of the piece-workers who have completed payment at' their work are settled. To those whose work is unfinished, the Officina daily wages due are paid, the account being settled later. The number of hands at piece-work varies according to the work in hand, generally, however, it does not exceed one-third of the total number of the hands. Sometimes, but rarely, the hands work for two extra hours in the day, and sometimes, exceptionally, they work for half a day on Sunday. Their pay, in these cases, increases in proportion to the extra number of hours' work. In cases of exceptional necessity advances are made to the hands, which are repaid by weekly deductions.

Every six months increase of pay is given to the apprentices, who, in time, may be able to earn from 40 c. to 50 c. per hour.

Increase in wages.

From 1863 to 1882 wages increased in the following proportions:—For constructors, 22 per cent.; for smiths, moulders, carpenters, opticians, and watchmakers, from 16 to 20 per cent.; for porters, 10 per cent., while they have doubled for apprentices.

A slight further increase has also taken place since 1886. This rise in wages is, in part, due to the desire of the manager of the establishment to retain good workmen, and partly to the greater demands on the part of the artizans to enable them to lead an easier life.

Railway workshops. In the workshops of the South Italian Railway Company at Florence the following rates of wages were paid in 1888, as compared with 1884:—

Number of hands employed { 1888 1884	••	89 <b>2</b> 811
Total number of hours of effective work { 1888 1884	••	2,696,800 2,275,766
Average number of hours' work per hand { 1888 1884	••	3,028 2,806
, , , , , , , , , for 1888 extra work	••	278 56 10
hours of extraordinary and ordinary work [ 1884	••	2
Average annual wages received per hand $1888$	••	Lire c. 955 21 832 20
Wages received per hand per hours work [1888 —fixed rates [1884	••	0·29 <b>5</b> 0·288
Profits on piece-work, and various $\begin{cases} 1888 \\ 1894 \end{cases}$	••	0·020 0·009
Total {1888   1884	••	0·815 0·297
Proportional percentage between the profits { 1888 on piece-work and the fixed rates of pay { 1884	••	7 8

Wages at Prato and Pistoja. Outside the city of Florence the following rates of wages have been given me.

PRATO.  Lire c. Lin  Moulders (foundry) per diem 2 50 to 4  Mechanics , (average)	
Moulders (foundry) per diem 2 50 to (	
Machanica (amanan)	00
Mechanics (average)	
	75
	00
	00
Carpenters, rather less	
	80
Boys per week 1 50 ,,	00
Pistoja.	
Lire c. Li	e c.
Smiths per diem (average	00
For the hands in the different departments , 200 to	00
	50
	00
Foundries , 150 ,	3 00

Iron works

Up to the present time the Province of Florence has contained six iron works in which bar iron, axles for vehicles, and agricultural implements are produced. In 1880 the total

annual production was estimated at 6,115 tons; the number of hands employed was, adult males, 248; lads under 15, 2; total, 250. There were thirteen hydraulic motors at work. The most important of these works, those of Mammiano in the district of San Marcello (Pistoja mountains) which belong to the company of the "Ferriere Italiane," are shortly to be closed, so that, unless the smaller works take an unexpected development, the production, noted above, will be considerably reduced.

It is not necessary to give details of all the foundries and Foundries and mechanical workshops existing in the province, brief notices of mechanical some of the principal works will suffice to give a general idea of workshops. the present condition of the industry. With regard to the amount of the production I can only repeat a note made in a previous report, that, in Italy, fear of the tax collector precludes the possibility of obtaining even an approximative estimate of its quantity and value. The nature of the articles produced is very Nature of varied. They include tubings for gas and water, lamp posts, production. railings, gates and other decorative works, conservatories, bridges, roofings, milling, pumping and agricultural machines, oil and wine presses—to which, as I have already said, special attention is given—agricultural implements, &c. In wrought iron some of the decorative works display considerable skill. The bronze castings of statues are, also, successfully carried out.

I have placed the foundries and mechanical workshops under the same heading, first noticing the works in the city of Florence, and then, those established in other localities within the limits of

the province.

Florence.—The principal foundry in this city is the "Stabili-Stabilimento mento del Pignone" (Limited), established over 40 years ago, and del Pignone. of which the Cavaliere Emilio Benini is the present managing director. Employment is given to some 200 hands. The works are fitted with four cupola smelting furnaces of the capacity of 200, 1,000, 4,000 and 6,000 kilos. respectively, and with two steam motors of 20 h.p. each, one of which was constructed at the works. The original machine tools are English, but all recent acquisitions have been made at Chemnitz. At the present time England is only applied to for a minimum quantity of steel required for some special purposes.

Mr. E. Benini has a separate foundry for artistic works in castiron, bronze, zinc and other metals, in which 100 hands, chiefly

youths of from 15 to 18 years of age, are employed

Then follow the foundries and workshops of Messrs. Veraci Other and Franchetti, well supplied with machinery, including a Meyer foundries. regulator and a Korting steam blower, and giving employment to 50 hands; of Mr. F. Berta with 45 hands, and of Messrs. Frilliand Giorgi de Pons, employing 50 hands.

The repairing workshops of the South Italian Railway Com-Railway pany—Reta Adriatica—are well fitted with machinery. The repairing machine tools have, bitherto, been principally imported from ahopa. Great Britain, and in a smaller proportion from Germany and France. The works now give employment to about 1,000 hands.

Workshop of Monte Domini.

The "Officina di Monte Domini," formerly belonging to the Florence Poor House, became, in 1868, the property of the Cavaliere Vegni. The works, which are under the management of Signor Artimini, are fitted with a 10 h.p. steam engine, and an assortment of machine tools of Swiss manufacture. Employment is given to 45 hands, between adults and apprentices, from the poor-house. The production consists of agricultural and industrial machinery, iron furniture, &c.

Other mechanical workshops. Among the other mechanical workshops may be mentioned those belonging to Messrs. D. Casal and Co., with 40 hands and a 10 h.p. engine; Messrs. Vignesti and Pieraccioli, with 20 hands; Signor Desireau, who constructs moulds for straw hats, and, also, tramway carriages; and Messrs. Malenohini and Co., the representatives of Messrs. Ruston, Proctor and Co., of Lincoln, and of Messrs. J. Eadie and Co., of Glasgow, who have a repairing workshop in which employment is given to 15 hands, and in which, also some small agricultural machines are made.

Officina Galileo. A more important establishment is the "Officina Galileo," under the management of the Cavaliere Golfarelli, at which scientific instruments of all kinds, but especially optical and geodetical, are manufactured. The work carried on is almost entirely for the account of the Italian Government, but instruments have been occasionally supplied to foreign Governments. The works are fitted with an 18 h.p. gas engine, and are well furnished with the necessary machine tools, purchased principally in Germany and France. The works are lighted by electricity. The average number of hands employed is now 140.

Electricity.

The advance in the employment of electricity for domestic purposes has caused the rise of three or four small establishments for fitting up apparatus for electric bells, lighting, &c., and in which lightning conductors are also constructed. The main works are, however, chiefly imported from Germany.

Milling machinery at Empoli. Signor Constantino Bianchi's factory of milling and agricultural machinery was founded in Florence in 1870, and transferred to Empoli in 1889. Twenty hands are employed at wages which range from 20 c. for apprentices to 50 c. per hour for skilled workmen. Steam power is supplied by two engines, one, English, of 4 h.p., the other, of 8 h.p., constructed at the works. Some of the machine tools in use have been made at the works, others come from abroad.

Messrs. Galli.

Bronze Foundries.—The Royal Bronze Foundry of Messrs. Galli Brothers was founded in the reign of the Grand Duke Leopold II. by the late Clemente Papi. Fifteen hands are employed. The average rate of wages range from 2 lire to 4 lire, while modellers may earn 5 lire per diem. Among the principal works that have been executed at this foundry may be mentioned the bronze statues of Cain and Abel, by Dupré, and the bronze mountings of tables in "pietra dura" in the Pitti Gallery; reproductions of Benvenuto Cellini's Perseus, Michelagnolo's David, and the figures of Day, Night, Dawn, and Twilight in the new Sacristy of San Lorenzo (Florence); Barzaghi's colossal statue of

Napoleon III., intended for Milan, but not yet erected, and a fine bronze group forming part of the monument to Garibaldi by Gallori, to be erected in Rome. Messrs. Galli have also cast several statues for different Italian cities, for Madrid (statue of Cervantes), and for the United States. Some of their works are also to be met with in London, Paris and Sydney (New South Wales).

Signor G. Pellas has, in connection with his printing and litho-Signor Pellas. graphic establishment, \* a galvanoplastic department and small bronze foundry, from which he turns out excellent reproductions of modern and mediæval works of art, both of large and of small dimensions, including statues, statuettes, armour, and ornamental articles. In this branch from 10 to 12 hands are employed, at wages which vary from 10 lire to 30 lire per week.

Messrs. Luder and Son produce artistic bronzes, bells, &c., and Messrs. Luder also special works in iron for conservatories and the like, pumps, and Son. meters, &c., their works are fitted with a 5 h.p. steam engine and

10 lathes; 30 hands are employed.

Prato. - In this city Signor A. Cerutti's foundry and mechanical Cerutti's workshops turn out iron castings and machines of various kinds; foundry. repairs are also undertaken. Employment is given to 100 hands, apprentices are supplied by the Prato orphan asylum, with which the works are in connection, this foundry tends to increase in

Signor Giuseppe Mazzoni with 20 hands, and Signor Ridolfo Manufacturers Mazzoni with the same number of workpeople, principally of carding machines. construct carding machines for the use of the local woollen

industry, and undertake repairs of machinery.

Pistoja.—Signor Pacini's foundry, "La Plura," is situate about Pacini's 2 kiloms. outside the city. The works were originally erected by foundry. the Grand Duke Francisco II., in 1754, for the manufacture of iron wire, and to serve as a general depôt for the iron produced in the Pistoja mountains. They were enlarged and improved when purchased by the Pacini family in 1836. Wrought iron, iron wire and articles in cast-iron and bronze are produced. The river Ombrone and Vincio torrent supply hydraulic power in the winter months. In the dry season a large cylinder blowing machine, on the Root system, is in use. The works contain one cataban and two comtois furnaces with powerful hammers, two open cataban furnaces, &c.; the pig iron is brought from Follonica or Cecina. The number of hands employed, formerly 100, is now, I am informed, reduced to about 50. Signor Pacini has other works in the mountains of Pistoja for the manufacture of agricultural implements, such as spades, ploughshares, matloks, &c., and a depôt of Italian and foreign agricultural machines at Pistoja.

Mesers. Lorenzetti in their foundry and workshops at Pistoja Mesers. employ from 40 to 50 hands, and produce pumps, hydraulic Lorenzetti. presses, iron gates, locks, sewing machines, and other works in wrought and cast-iron.

\* Report on Industries of the Province of Florence, Miscellaneous Series No. 141 August, 1889, Foreign Office.



Messrs. Michelucci. Messrs. P. Michelucci and Son give employment to a total of 66 hands, of whom 46 adults and 20 apprentices from the orphan asylum of Pistoja, with which the works are connected. Messrs. Michelucci produce principally artistic castings and works in wrought iron, park gates, railings, &c., for which they enjoy an excellent reputation. They also undertake the construction of conservatories, and once built an iron railway bridge.

Other works.

Messrs. Ramponi and Signor Richter in their foundries re-

spectively give employment to some 14 hands.

Bronze foundries. Pistoja likewise contains three small bronze foundries for the production of commercial articles such as bells, cymbals (piatti musicali), &c. They belong respectively to Messrs. Benti and Co. (10 hands), Messrs. E. Raffanelli and Son—one of the oldest foundries in Tuscany—(4 hands), and Signor Rosati (4 hands).

For artistic castings in bronze Messrs. Conversini give employment to 10 hands, Messrs. Carradori to 5 hands.\*

Brass foundry and pin factory. At San Marcello, in the Pistoja mountains, Messrs. Turri established, about two years since, a small brass foundry in connection with a small factory for the production of "English" pins and of copper and brass wire. Only a few hands are employed. Labourers earn 1 lire 50 c. per diem, skilled workmen from 2 lire 50 c. to 3 lire 50 c. The low rates of wages are accounted for at San Marcello by the fact that the workmen are also small landowners.

Locksmiths.

Signor

Gozzini's factory.

Returning to Florence and its neighbourhood, it may be mentioned that the locksmiths enjoy a fair reputation, but they work, generally, on a small scale. The only factory of any importance appears to be that of Signor Natale Gozzini, of Scandicci, near the capital city, at which 70 hands are employed, who are able to earn, at piece-work, from 2 lire to 5 lire per diem. The works, which were established at Scandicci in 1868, are supplied with about 14 h.p. hydraulic, and with an English 10 h.p. steam engine for use in the dry season. They are fitted with a variety of machine tools, many of which are constructed by Signor Gozzini himself. The production consists of locks of all qualities, window and door fittings in iron, and brass door handles, &c. Signor Gozzini, whose merits have been recognised at various exhibitions, has received large orders for the new houses that have been built and are now building in Rome.

Works in tin,

For works of tin, zinc, and brass, Messrs. Gioja have a factory in Florence, in which employment is given to about 50 hands. Various descriptions of culinary and domestic utensils in

• Messrs. Conversini, whose works are under the management of Signor Papini, C.E., execute castings not only in bas-relief but in the nound, without the necessity of suls quently retouching the bronze. The system is based on the special composition of the earths forming the moulds, and on the quality and accurate modelling of the wax in works "a cera perduta." Among some of the principal works produced by the firm may be mentioned Professor Rivalta's statue of Mazzini, erected at Chiavari; Professor Zeech's statue of Gasithaldi, at Perugia; and the statue of Plus IX., by Professor Papliacectii, in one of the halfs of the Vatican. A colossal equestrian statue of King Victor Emanuel, for the city of Leghorn, is now in course of execution, as well as an important monument for the Province of Bahia (Brazil).

the above metals, baths, umbrella stands, tins for petroleum, &c., are produced at these works at reasonable prices, and find a sale

throughout Italy.

The brass smiths of Florence are excellent workmen, and are Brass and the able to turn out articles of good artistic quality and at low prices, but they work in a small way, and there are no factories to render a detailed description necessary. The same may be said for smiths' work in general.

Surgical Instruments and Cutlery.—In the city of Florence Surgical there are three manufacturers of surgical instruments, Dr. instruments. Gabrielli, Signor Bussadori, and Signor Bencini. The last two firms, I am informed, work on a limited scale only, and occupy themselves chiefly with the sale of imported instruments, and in executing repairs. Dr. Gabrielli's small factory, in which four to five hands are employed, was founded in the beginning of the present century. Surgical instruments of all descriptions are manufactured from the best English and Italian steel, and, principally, to supply the waste of the local hospitals. A speciality of the firm is Cusco's speculum, which finds a sale throughout Italy, and, on account of its low price, is now likely to meet with a market in Germany.

Dr. Gabrielli also imports from 7,000 lire to 8,000 lire worth of surgical instruments per annum from Germany, and,

occasionally, from England.

I have been favoured with the following notes relating to the Cutlery. manufacture of common cutlery at Scarperia, a commune of some 3,000 inhabitants, lying on the slopes of the Apennines, in the region of the province known as the Mugello, in the Val di Sieri. The industry appears to have been originally established in Scarperia early in the fourteenth century. It was flourishing in the fifteenth century, and its statutes, now preserved in the State archives of Florence, were approved by Duke Cosimo I. in the year 1535. In later times the industry did not fall off, and, a few years since, a co-operative society was established among some working cutlers, which, it is stated, is carried on successfully. This manufacture now gives employment to some 130 workpeople, who carry on the industry partly in their own homes, in part in the 23 shops established in the town, and partly in the workshops of the co-operative society. The earnings of a master workman are calculated at about 20 lire per week. The articles produced, which, for the most part, are of ordinary quality, roughly mounted, and chiefly suitable for country use, consist of knives of various descriptions, table, pocket, garden, shoemakers, and leather cutlers' scissors, large and small, erasers, bistouris, &c. The sales are either made to order or wholesale, which latter are greatly facilitated by the local dealers, who travel twice a year throughout Italy. The principal market for the cutlery of Scarperia is the Tuscan Maremma, followed by Sardinia, the province of Modena, the Casentino, and Lucca. There is, however, hardly a Tuscan peasant who is unprovided with a spring folding knife, which he still prefers to an ordinary table knife for use at meals.

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The raw steel used is brought from Lecco, in Lombardy; the boxwood and horn, from which the handles are made, come, the first from Pistoja, the second from Leghorn, Ricanati, Rome, Bologna, &c. The value of the total annual production is estimated at from 135,000 lire to 140,000 lire. Annexed is a list of the manufacturers' prices for some of the principal articles made:—

								ľ	er	DO	zen	
								ire	c.	L	ire	c.
Knives with	black	horn	handle	8, 4	Alla	Marem	ma,"					
spring cla-p	46	••	• •		••	••			40		4	70
Dagger shaped	i, plair	ı, sprin	g clasp	8		••	• •	1	80		2	75
"	orna	mented	, sprin	g ch	asps	••	••		50		4	80
Sportsmen's k	nives,	spring	clasps	• •	• •		••	7	00	99	8	60
Table knives	••			• •	• •	••	• •	3	00	"	4	00
Garden knive	B	••	• •	••	• •	• •	••	5	80	91	18	ùΟ
Erasers	• •		• •		••	••	• •	в	00	1)	7	00
Scissors			• •	••	••			4	20	"	15	00

Tailors' scissors, 3, 4 and 5 lire per pair.

The variations in price depend on the quality of the work. The steel and temper are the same in all cases.

The mountings are generally of brass; occasionally only of

packfong.

Tuscan workmen. In concluding these imperfect notes on the metal industries of the province of Florence, I would only add that the Tuscan workman is, no doubt, not so well drilled or so steady a worker as the British artizan. His wages, however, though increasing as the wants of modern life become more felt, are still on a comparatively low scale, and he is certainly endowed with a feeling for art which he has inherited from his mediæval, or, perhaps, even his Etruscan forerunners.

#### WRIGHTS AND MEASURES.

1 kilogramme = 2·204 lbs. avoirdupois.
1 quintal = 220.4 ,,
1 ton = 2204 ,,
25 lire = 1*l*. sterling.
100 centimes = 1 lire.

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1891.

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## ITALY.

#### REPORT ON

## THE OCTROI DUTIES IN ITALY.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, FEBRUARY, 1891.

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#### ITALY.

#### LEGHORN.

Consul O'Neill to the Marquis of Salisbury.

St. Vallier, Alpes Maritimes, 23rd Jan., 1891.

I HAVE the honour to forward a Report I have drawn up upon the system of Octroi Duties imposed in the Communes of Italy, illustrated chiefly from the Octroi Tariff of the city of Leghorn.

I was first led to undertake this from some inquiries made by British exporters and others in the United Kingdom as to the octroi duties chargeable upon goods sent to the larger towns of

my district.

My Lord,

The manner in which several of these inquiries were made left little doubt that the writers were not aware of the general nature of the octroi system of Italy, the varied application of these duties in the different-sized communes of the country, their pressure on different classes of merchandise, the method of collection, &c. There was clearly a want of information upon these and other points connected with octroi duties.

I am only too fully aware that this want is but imperfectly supplied in the enclosed Report, and that it is a subject on which much more might be said both as to general effects and details of

working.

But if it be found to contain sufficient matter to be of any value to those trading with this country, as well as to those interested in questions of indirect taxation of this nature, I trust Your Lordship will permit its publication.

I have, &c. (Signed) HENRY E. O'NEILL.

P.S.—This Report was begun before I left Leghorn, for reasons of ill-health, and has been completed whilst on leave of absence.—H. O'N.

(1028)



The Octroi Duties of Italy: their bearing upon Foreign Manufactures and Products, upon National or Italian Industries, and upon the Consumer.

Special features of octroi duties in Italy.

Upon turning over and disentangling the somewhat complicated legislation which regulates the imposition and application of octroi and municipal duties in Italy, four points reveal themselves which seem to me to have in some respects a distinct and peculiar So far as I can learn, two of them at least are not common to most countries in which these duties are imposed, and they appear therefore to be worth special notice. briefly enumerate them:-

Not confined to articles previously untaxed by the State.

1. The octroi duties levied in Italian cities are not confined, as is generally speaking the case, to articles of consumption not previously taxed by the State. On the contrary, the most important articles of daily use and consumption are taxed both by the State and by the municipality. If they are of foreign import, they are in certain cases taxed first by the State at the frontier, then again by the State at the city walls, and again a sur-tax is levied upon them on behalf of the commune. Thus certain articles are taxed three times over before they reach the consumer.

Only partly municipal ia character.

2. The octroi duties of Italy can therefore hardly be said to be municipal in character, for they are not collected solely, or even mainly, for local or municipal purposes. They form a very important part of the State taxation of the country. proportion, nearly one-half, is paid into the national treasury, and goes toward defraying the expenses of army, navy, public works, justice, law, and the general administration of the country. this respect they differ from those of most European countries, but resemble those of Spain and Austria.

Of unequal incidence throughout the country.

3. They are of unequal incidence throughout the country, not so much from local exigencies, or such causes as commonly affect municipal taxation, but from the fact that State legislation compels them to be levied according to a fixed, graduated scale, which varies according to the population of the town or commune.

General enforcement is only of recent date.

4. Their general application throughout the country is of comparatively recent date, and may be said to commence with the unification of the kingdom, since which time also they have upon all sides enormously increased.

The above points fully explained.

A fuller explanation seems necessary of the points simply enumerated above, and I will endeavour to make them clear before entering upon an examination of the octroi duties leviable, or attempting to show how they bear upon foreign manufactures.

The position tion on the unification of the kingdom.

Their general application throughout the kingdom of Italy is, of octroi taxa- I have said, of comparatively recent date. This remark specially holds good with regard to the region from which I write—the former Grand Duchy of Tuscany. It is also specially true with respect to the old kingdom of Sardinia. Up to 1864 only six communes in Tuscany, out of the 246 in which the Duchy was divided, had octroi duties levied upon them. It is, however, right to say that these were the six largest. And out of the 2,349

communes which composed the kingdom of Sardinia, in only 236 were these duties imposed. In Lombardy, Emilia, and the southern provinces the imposition of these indirect taxes was, we are told, very general, whilst in Umbria and the Marches very few communes were exempt from them, 152 out of 176 paying in the former, and 227 out of a total of 285 in the latter.

Since the unification of the kingdom these taxes, I remarked, have been enormously increased. If we take an average of the first three years, that is, from 1860-62, we find the State received from octroi duties an annual sum which barely exceeded 20,000,000 fr., but in 1888-89 no less than 74,700,000 fr. (3,000,000l. sterling) was paid into the national Treasury from this source alone.

An examination of the first and second points brings us at Special once to the question: "What is the law, and what are the features I. and regulations that govern the octroi taxation of Italy"?

The basis of reply to this question must be looked for in The bases of the law of July 3rd, 1864, which first established a uniform octroi legislasystem of octroi taxation throughout Italy. That law forms the tion in Italy. foundation of the octroi system of the country. Upon the early law of 1864 there has, however, grown up a superstructure of royal decrees and ministerial circulars which must be looked into if this system of indirect taxation is to be understood.

It would be wearisome and useless to the English reader were Why it is I to describe, in any detail, the progress of this legislation. It singularly has been very changeable and varied in character, being subject character. to the double influence of local demands and burdens on the one hand, and the imperative wants of the Treasury on the other. Between the two, municipal taxation has stood as a source freely drawn upon from both sides whenever any possibility of a

yield presented itself.

The very year the first law regulating local taxation was How the framed was one in which the necessities of the Treasury were octroi taxaacute, and this condition clearly manifested itself in the demands to be national made by the central government upon the communes. With as much as 1864 began a series of dark years for Italian finance; heavy municipal. deficits had closed that and previous years; a war cloud was hanging over the country, for the Venetian provinces were still Austrian, and every resource was being strained in preparation for the coming struggle; the Government had gone to Florence —in itself a very costly step—on its way to Rome; Italian 5 per cents., now 95, had fallen to 65, on their way to 40, which point was reached only 18 months after, at the moment when the Government was obliged to lay hands upon the metal resources of all the great banks, and in that manner to force a great loan upon the country.

These facts are all well known, and I only recall them as the most natural explanation of the necessity which compelled the Government of Italy to lay a hand for the benefit of the national Treasury upon resources which are generally considered purely municipal, and are applied, in most countries, to purely local purposes.

(1028)



The sources from which the communes of Italy derive summarised. and communal law.

Art. 147 of the present "Provincial and Communal Law" establishes the sources from which the communes of Italy are at liberty to draw revenue by taxation. It clearly and briefly their revenue summarises them, and as this article forms the broad basis of communal taxation, upon which also the octroi duties rest, I the provincial cannot do better than quote it in full.

Art. 147. "Every commune is permitted, in the event of an insufficiency of revenue to meet its expenses, to levy the following

duties within the limits established by the law":-

"1. To levy octroi duties, which may be collected directly or by farming out, upon all articles of food, and upon beverages which are free from the imposition of an octroi duty in favour of the National Government. It may also levy duties upon all 'materials of construction,' upon forage, upon fuels, and upon other articles of local consumption of a like nature to those taxed in favour of the State. No duty is, however, allowed to be levied on goods simply in transit through the commune."

"2. Upon the articles taxed in favour of the State, the communes may, however, levy a sur-tax within the limits established

- "3. The communes may establish a tax upon certain businesses and trades, and upon the retail sale of articles, not monopolies of the State. They may also levy a tax upon the family or hearth ('famiglia e fuocatico'\*); upon public and private vehicles; upon domestic servants; upon house rent; upon photographs and public signs; upon herds of cattle and flocks of sheep, &c.; upon all beasts, whether draught, or of saddle, or of burden; and upon all dogs not employed in the guardianship of flocks or of houses in the country.
- "4. The communes may exercise directly, or give out to lease, the right of public weighing and measuring; of weighing cereals and wines; and they may also levy taxes upon public stalls and booths in fairs and markets."†
- "5. Communes may impose a tax upon the occupation of public spaces in proportion to the area of the ground occupied, and the importance or value of the site."

"6. Communes may impose a sur-tax upon the direct taxes

levied by the State upon land and upon buildings."‡

The chief acts regulating octroi taxation.

The above article of the "Provincial and Communal Law" of 1890 gives the briefest and best summary I know of the bases of communal taxation in Italy. It tells us, however, nothing more,

- \* This is a kind of municipal income tax. It is levied in addition to the income tax imposed by the State, and is assessed upon the net income of the head of the family.—H. O'N.
- † This article does not make the use of public weights and measures obligatory, but merely provides for the establishment in certain public places of scales and measures which guarantee to trade correct weight and measurement.—H. O'N.

The power to impose a sur-tax upon these two important items of direct taxation of the country is extended also to the province. But the sur-tax imposed by the province, together with the sur-tax levied by the commune, may not exceed 100 c. upon every lira levied by the State, i.e., the sum of the provincial and communal surtaxes upon land and buildings is not to exceed the tax paid to the State.—H. O'N.

and if we are to learn something of the practical application throughout the country of that portion of communal taxation into which we are inquiring, viz., the octroi duties, we must go back to the earlier law of 1864. It was that law, as I before said, which first established a uniform system of octroi taxation in all parts of the new kingdom. Subsequent Royal decreesnotably those of June 20, 1866; of July 26, 1868; of August 11, 1870; and of June 14, 1874—have modified and altered that law, sometimes extending the range of articles subject to taxation by the municipality for the benefit of the State, sometimes withdrawing from the communes taxing powers and transferring them wholly to the State, and at other times widening the limits within which the communes were confined with respect to municipal taxation for local purposes.

I shall not refer to these changes in detail, but will endeavour to describe the general system existing at this day, under which the octroi duties are collected in the towns and communes of the

country.

I have spoken of their unequal incidence throughout the Unequal country, and pointed to this inequality as singular, when due, as incidence of it is in Italy, to State regulation, and not to local exigencies. the octroi taxation of What is the nature of the regulation that produces this inequality Italy. of incidence?

It is simply that, for the purpose of the collection of octroi To what the duties, the State divides the communes, or towns and villages of inequality is the country into five different classes, levying in each class a different tax upon the same article; and as the sur-taxes leviable by the commune are in nearly all cases in direct proportion to the taxes levied for the benefit of the State, it will at once be seen how greatly the octroi duties differ in the different classes into which Italian communes are divided.

To take one or two examples in immediate illustration of this: This -If I live in a town of over 50,000 inhabitants, the flour that inequality makes my bread pays—to the State—at the town gates a tax of 2 lire per quintal (91d. per cwt.); my beef, if it enters the town killed, pays 12 lire 50 c. (5s. per cwt.), if it be driven in alive, it pays 40 lire (1l. 12s.) a head; my wine, if it passes the gates bottled, pays 15 c. (11d.) a bottle, if it passes in cask, 7 lire the hectolitre (3d. per gallon); the sugar my family consumes will pay 10 lire per quintal (4s. per cwt.); the butter 8 lire, and so on.

But if my lot be cast in a town of less than 8,000 inhabitants. my bread, meat, wine, sugar, and butter is much cheaper; for flour is then taxed at the town gates (in favour of Government) only 1 lire 40 c. the quintal; beef killed, only 6 lire in lieu of 12 lire, and, if alive, only 20 lire a head in lieu of 40 lire; wine, if bottled, only 5 c. a bottle instead of 15 c., and if in cask, only 3 lire 50 c. instead of 7 lire; sugar, only 4 lire the quintal instead of 10 lire; butter 5 lire and not 8 lire, as in the larger town, and so on.

But as the communal sur-taxes upon all such articles are in pro-sur-taxes upon portion to the tax levied upon them for the benefit of the State, levied by the

Communal

Up to what point they may go.

How the octroi legislation of Italy interferes with natural course of prices and increases cost of living in large towns.

it will at once be seen that the actual difference of cost is very much greater than represented above.

It will naturally be asked here: What is the limit up to which the communes are allowed to sur-tax, on their own behalf, articles already taxed by them on behalf of the State? The sur-tax on behalf of the commune may be run up to 50 per cent. of the tax levied in favour of the State.\*

I may be allowed to digress a moment here to point out how this form of legislation in Italy checks supply and alters the natural course of prices. One of the most marked features of our day is the aggregation of human life in great centres. The rapid and enormous growth of population in the leading cities has raised difficult questions which have had to be met with regard to the food supply of these great masses thickly congregated upon unproductive land. "How are such multitudes to be fed?" this question modern science has found the means of reply. facilitating and enormously cheapening communications great supplies of food are drawn from all parts and thrown in sufficient quantities, and at so low a cost, into the great towns, that this difficulty, which at first might well seem invincible, is now almost London is as well provided as any agricultural or fishing village 100 miles distant from it. perhaps, taking it all round, for if milk, butter, and eggs be a trifle dearer, there are a score of articles of food and prime necessity, which will at once occur to the reader, that I can obtain in London far better and cheaper than in the village where I may live within a stone's-throw of land producing almost all that land in one climate can be made to produce.

But in a country like Italy, where octroi legislation of the character I am describing is in force, this successful if artificial solution of the difficulty is not allowed free and unfettered course. On the contrary, in the largest cities, that is, just where this difficulty presents itself in its most acute form, the greater are the obstacles interposed. Where freedom of food introduction is most urgently required, there it is least granted, for the larger the city the heavier are the duties upon its entry, as I have already

made clear.

For the collection of octroi duties. Italian communes are divided into four classes.

I have just compared the duties levied upon a few of the necessaries of life in communes of two classes—those with a population of over 50,000, and those with less than 8,000 inhabitants. But the communes of Italy are actually divided not into two, but into four classes:-

Inhabitants. First class, embracing all towns of over ... 50,000 Second ,, 20,001 to 50,000 from ... .. " ,, ٠. . . Third 8,001 to 20,000 Fourth ,, embracing all communes having a population under

<sup>\*</sup> To this rule there are four important exceptions, viz., flour, bread, pastes (macaroni, vermicelli, and the like), and rice, which may be sur-taxed up to 20 per cent. or one-fifth of their value. This basis is calculated on the average value for the five preceding years.—H. O'N.

There is another general division of some importance, but upon which I need not dwell, for it is one that has no effect until we come down to the smaller rural communes of the fourth class, Also into and not indeed to all of them. All communes are divided, for "closed' the purpose of the collection of octroi duties, into two general "open" divisions, viz., "closed" and "open" communes. Those that levy communes. their octroi duties upon goods passing their town gates or other fixed post established on the communal border are termed "closed communes." Communes are termed "open" in which no such fiscal barrier exists, and in this division, to which belong the majority of rural communes of the fourth class, the octroi duties are levied upon an entirely different system. The tax in such communes is imposed upon the retail sale of produce and upon the slaughter of animals for human consumption, called respectively "la tassa di minuta vendita et di macellazione."

Though the number of "open" or rural communes naturally greatly exceeds that of the town or "closed," the total octroi revenue levied in them is comparatively small, being but onesixth of the whole.

The following table will now show the extent to which octroi duties are levied in each class of commune for the benefit of the State or central government:-

TABLE of Octroi Duties levied by the State in the different Classes of Communes.

		First Class.	Class.	Second Class.	Class.	Third	Third Class.	Fourt	Fourth Class.
Articles.		Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling	Currency.	Sterling.
		Lira c.	£ 8. d.	Lire c.	£ 8. d.	Lire c.	£ 8. d.	Lire c.	s. d.
Devenges— Wine and vinegar in casks Wine and vinegar, bottled Sweet wines	Hectolitre Bottle Hectolière	7 00 0 15 5 50	0 0 0 144 0 0 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	5 00 0 10 4 00	0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 2 1 0	4 0 8 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 3 23 0 0 0 23 4 43	8 50 0 05 2 50	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Grapes, if in quantities of above five kilos	Quintal	8 20	0 2 94	2 50	0 2 0	2 00	0 1 74	1 50	$1$ $2\frac{1}{3}$
strength	Hectolitre	24 00	0 19 24	16 60	0 12 94	12 00	0 9 74	00 6	7 23
	Botíle	40 00 0 60	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	30 00 0 50	1 4 0 0 0 4 <sup>3</sup> / <sub>4</sub>	20 00 0 40	0 16 0 0 0 33	16 00 0 30	12 9\} 0 3
Meats— Beef Cows and bullocks Calves over one year old Calves under one year old Pork Sucking-pigs Sheep, goats Fresh meat	Head " " " " " " Quintal "	25 00 25 00 12 00 16 00 5 00 25 00 25 00 25 00	11 12 0 17 74 0 0 17 74 0 0 17 74 0 0 0 17 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	30 00 20 00 16 00 10 00 10 00 4 00 10 00 20 00	1 # 0 0 12 0 0 12 0 0 0 8 0 0 0 0 8 22 0 0 0 0 8 22 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	25 00 17 00 14 00 8 00 3 00 0 30 17 00	1 0 0 13 74 0 0 11 2 74 0 0 11 2 74 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	20 00 14 00 18 00 6 00 6 00 6 00 14 00	116 90 1174 1174 1174 1174 1174 1174 1174 117

TABLE of Octroi Duties levied by the State in the different Classes of Communes—continued.

		First Class.	Class.	Second Class.	Class.	Third Class.	Class.	Fourt	Fourth Class.
Articles.		Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Ster ling	Currency.	Sterling.
Flours and Rice—		Lire c.	£ & &.	Lire c.	£ 8. 6.	Lire c.	£ 6. d.	Lire c.	£ e. d.
Wheaten flour, breads, and pastes (macaron, vermicelli, &c.)	Quintal	8	0 1 74	1 80	0 1 54	1 60	0 1 84	1 40	1 15
kinds Bice.	::	8 <b>4</b> 8	0 1 14 0 174	1 20	0 0 1115 0 1 54	1 60	0 0 9 <del>1</del> 0 1 3 <del>1</del>	0 90	0 1 14 14 14
Oils and Butters— Butter, regetable, and animal oil of every kind, except medicinal oils Mineral oil, tallow.	: :	& <b>4</b> 00 00	0 0 3 4 24 44	% 4 00 00	0 0 44 0 44 0 44	90 90 90 90 90	0 4 9 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	2 00 20 20	<b>→ 8</b> 1
Fruits and oil-bearing seeds	: 2		-		-		-		
Sugars — Sugars		10 00	0 8 0	8 00	0 6 43	9 9	€ 8¥	₹ 00	8 2}

Résumé of the octroi duties of Italy.

Before proceeding further, let me make a brief résumé of the octroi system above described. Of what do these duties consist?

1. Of a tax levied, on behalf of the national Government,

upon a certain number of articles of food and drink.

2. Of a tax levied for the benefit of the commune on almost all other articles of local consumption and use.

3. Of a sur-tax for the benefit of the commune upon all articles already taxed in favour of the State.

Taxation under the first of these heads is based on and

limited by a tariff issued by the State.

Under the second, the communes are at liberty to tax up to

20 per cent. of the value of the articles.

Under the third, the sur-tax may be carried up to 50 per cent. of the tax in favour of the State, which forms its base; except in the case of four articles, flour, bread, pastes, and rice, which may be sur-taxed up to 20 per cent. of their value.

A fair general idea has, I hope, now been given of the nature of the octroi system of Italy, and of the manner in which this taxation is applied in the various centres of population in the country. It has seemed to me advisable to say so much upon it, not only because it is, in some respects, peculiar in Italy, but also because I do not forget that taxation of this description is wholly unknown to us in England. Without a general comprehension also of the whole system, an examination of the separate points into which I have divided this inquiry could but be imperfect and unsatisfactory. I will now, however, set myself to answer the question, "How do these duties bear upon articles of foreign manufacture?" and to do this I take for illustration the manner in which they are applied in the city or commune of Leghorn.

Their bearing upon articles of foreign manufacture considered.

Octroi duties have nothing of a differential character.

It is almost superfluous for me to say there is nothing whatever of a differential character in these or any other duties on British and most other foreign products consumed in Italy. Any degree of differential treatment of British products is vetoed by Article II. of our Treaty of Commerce with Italy, and by Article XI., or the "most-favoured-nation clause," advantages given to any other nation are at once secured to us, and being classed form what is known as the conventional, in distinction from the general, tariff. There is not in the application of the octroi duties even the suspicion of a differential treatment, sometimes betrayed in a customs tariff by higher protective duties levied upon the particular products of one country, as against the special products of another. The octroi duties affect all equally, be they of national origin or of foreign, no matter of what nation.

The first octroi duties apt to be incorrect

So far as I have described them yet, they appear hardly to impression of touch foreign manufactures and products. One might be tempted from a simple inspection of the above table to jump to the conclusion that octroi duties were but an extension to home products of the principle of taxing all articles before they reached the consumer, for, if we except mineral oils and cane sugar, there is not an article there that does not form a special and natural product of Italy. Foreign products you might be disposed to say are taxed at the national frontier, home products at the city walls.

But let the "Tariffa Daziaria," or octroi tariff of any Italian This shown city, be carefully looked into, and quite a different view of this by careful taxation gradually unfolds itself. Let clause 147 of the Com-examination of octroi munal Law be first re-read. "The communes may levy duties tariffs. upon 'materials of construction' . . . . . 'upon articles of food and beverages not taxed for the benefit of the State."

These few words alone are capable of being developed and That of are developed into a whole system of taxation. The octroi tariff Leghorn of Leghorn—a fair example of that of other Italian cities of the considered.

same size—will afford us clear illustration of this.

It is divided into 129 heads, some of these being single It is divided articles, but others being whole classes under which many into 129 hundreds of articles are comprised, as I will show.

Of these 129 heads, 31 are of articles taxed by the State and again sur-taxed by the commune. The remainder are taxed

for the sole benefit of the commune.

These 129 heads are ranged under seven divisions, which I And into will quote to give a general idea of the field over which the divisions. octroi duties extend.

I. Beverages of all Kinds.—Wines, spirits, beers, gaseous These

II. Foods of all Descriptions.—This division is divided into described. three classes. (a) Meats, which are again sub-divided into eight heads, and differently taxed. (b) Flours, which are again taxed under six sub-heads, according to the grain from which they are made. (c) Various other articles of food ("commestibili diversi"), which class is sub-divided under 31 heads, including fruit, vegetables, beans, and garden produce of all kinds, fresh or dried; poultry, game, and fish, fresh or salt; fresh milk, rice, cheese, chestnuts, fungi, &c.

III. All Fatty and Combustible Matters ("Materie grassie combustibile").—In this division are 20 sub-heads, under which are included oils, animal and vegetable, and oil seeds, butter, candles, soap, wax, and all fatty substances. Also coal, coke, charcoal, wood for firing, and all combustibles down to matches.

IV. Colonial Produce.—Under this division we find but six sub-heads, but they include important items of consumption, such

as coffee, cocoa, tea, sugar, and pepper.

V. Forage and Fodder.—In this division there are but five sub-heads, but under them we may observe taxed not only hay, brans, oil-cakes, and such like horse and cattle food, but also straw and dried grass used as litter.

VI. Materials of Construction.

VII. Various Articles ("Generi diversi").

Within these last two divisions are 39 sub-heads, some of British manuwhich extend over an enormous range of articles. It is indeed factures are inder the last two divisions that we find most articles of British included in the manufacture are captured,

last divisions.

Examination of sub-head 120 will show this.

Let us first take sub-head 120, and see what nature of articles is taxed under the brief title of "Furniture and House-fittings" ("Mobili e arredi"). The note attached to it will best explain:—

"In this class is comprised all furniture of metal or wood; all sofas, chairs, beds, washing-stands and toilette furniture; billiard-tables and all games; safes and strong boxes; every description of case of wood or metal to which a lock is attached; book-cases, desks, cupboards; spring mattresses, house-clocks and watches, even if without their works; strips and bands for cornices, and cornices of all shapes and kinds, of wood or metal, mounted or unmounted, gilt or stained; watch and card-cases, clothes' chests and panniers, arm-chests (?), whether of wood or metal; oil-paintings, oleographs and prints, if framed; all bent wood furniture; garden and rural utensils and furniture, of metal, wood, or basket work; brackets, tripods, medallions, busts, and all such articles serving for house ornamentation; and finally, all furniture and house-fittings which may be likened to the above enumerated articles."

"To this class also belong all fittings and instruments, portable or not, that may serve for the internal lighting of houses, of whatever materials they may be composed, or whatever the source of illumination, such as lamps, tables hanging or hand, candelabrae,

candlesticks, &c."

"All articles of metal and wood which serve for finishing or ornamenting furniture, as springs for upholstery and for mattresses, brass balls for bed-columns, chair-castors, brass studs, strips of metal for frames, rods, or brackets, for sustaining upholstery; all works in crystal, wood, majolica, or metal for ornamenting lamps, &c."

Articles classed under the above head pay by weight an octroi duty at the town gates of 4 lire the quintal (1s. 7\frac{1}{6}d. per cwt.).

Of sub-head 117 also.

Sub-head 104.

Sub-head 98.

Let us take another sub-head, No. 117, or metals worked ("Lavori di metallo"). I again translate the explanatory note:—

"This class comprises all articles of iron, cast or wrought, of steel, copper, bronze, brass, lead, zinc, galvanised iron, and of any other metals that may be used in the construction or finishing of houses or other edifices, such as gates, balconies, hinges, bells of all kinds, water-pipes, and all appliances for external lighting. To this class also belong stoves, ovens, portable ranges for coal, gas, or any other combustible; door fastenings of all descriptions, even when included in fittings and furniture, such as door handles, knockers, plates for key holes, and nails and tacks of all kinda."

All articles classed under this sub-head pay by weight the octroi

duty of 1 lire 50 c. the quintal (7d. per cwt.).

Two more sub-heads devoted to metal work may be quoted:—
No. 104, "Metals drawn and in sheets." This class includes
"metals in sheets or in hoops and wire, and comprises tin sheets
and brass hooping." These pay a duty of 80 c. the quintal

 $(6s. 4\frac{1}{3}d. per ton)$ .

Under sub-head 98, or "iron unworked or in the rough" ("Ferro di prima fabricazione"), we find iron and steel, whether in

bars, rods, or plates, even when coated with copper and zinc, &c. These pay the smallest duty of 50 c. the quintal (4s. per ton).

It will be noticed that the octroi taxation, so far as it is illus- Nothing trated by the sub-heads I have quoted, is all-absorbing but light. escapes the octroi. The In no case, in fact, under these two last divisions has the com-above submune of Leghorn approached the maximum duty authorised by heads show the law, which, it should be borne in mind, may be carried up to the duties to 20 per cent. of the value in respect to "materials of construction." Leghorn. But It is not my object, however, to translate the octroi tariff of the law

Leghorn, or to do more than give here a general idea of its range permits them and application. The clauses already quoted will, I hope, much higher. sufficiently do this with regard to the metal trades. They will Octrol be enough to show British manufacturers and exporters of the taxation of numerous classes of articles embraced by the above sub-heads foreign that the customs tariff, or duties paid at the national frontier, do imports not represent the full burdens imposed upon their manufactures examined. and exports before they reach the consumer.

With the object still of showing how these duties bear upon foreign imports, we will now turn to some articles of food con-

sumption :-

Coffee, after having paid a customs duty of 140 lire On coffee. a quintal (21. 16s. per cwt.) at the national frontier, pays again 15 lire (12s. per cwt.) for the same quantity at the city

Tea has a communal tax of 20 lire a quintal (16s. per cwt.) On tea.

imposed upon it after having paid 200 lire to the customs.

A quintal of sugar having paid 78 lire 50 c. (1l. 11s. 5d. per On sugar. cwt.) to the State at the frontier, is again taxed by the State 10 lire (4s. per cwt.) on its entrance into the city, and it further pays a sur-tax to the commune, which in the case of Leghorn is small, amounting only to 2 lire, but which may be extended to 5 lire, or 50 per cent. of the tax in favour of the State.

Cocoa, which under the customs tariff pays 100 lire and 125 On cocoa. lire (2l. and 2l. 10s. per cwt.) the same measure to Government, according as it is in nibs or paste, pays a further duty of 15 lire

(6s. per cwt.) under the octroi.

Of the four articles I have before mentioned, in which the communes are allowed to carry their sur-taxes beyond the ordinary limit, flour (or wheat) and rice may be classed with the foreign imports. True, they are products also of Italy, and their import has been checked by high protective duties, but wheat still enters in large quantities.

Foreign wheat pays a customs duty on import of 50 lire (2l) On wheat. per ton, or 5 lire per quintal (2s. per cwt.); if it enters in the form of flour, it pays 6 lire. But as flour it pays 2 more lire to the State at the city barrier, and a further sum of 4 lire 80 c. to the commune. If it enters the city as bread, it pays 2 lire to the Government and 5 lire to the commune; if in the form of macaroni, vermicelli, and the like, a total of 9 lire is levied upon it, of which 2 lire go to the State and 7 lire to the commune.

And cleaned imported rice, after paying the enormous duty of On rice.

14 ITALY.

11 lire per quintal (111 lire, or 4l. 8s. 10d. per ton) at the frontier, contributes 2 more lire to Government on entering the city and 4 lire to the commune.

On petroleum and mineral oils.

With one more example, that of mineral oils, I may conclude this list of articles of foreign import. Raw petroleum is imported in immense quantities into Leghorn in tank vessels from Batoum. It is purified here, made up in cases, and despatched to all parts of Central Italy. The quantity discharged into the Leghorn reservoirs in 1889 exceeded 7,000 tons. This oil, unrefined, pays a customs duty of 38 lire per quintal (151. 4s. per ton): a further contribution of 4 lire is levied upon it by Government on its passing the octroi barrier, and to this 2 more lire are added for the benefit of the commune.

The question how octroi duties bear on foreign imports now answered.

The first part of the inquiry is, I think, now sufficiently The general description given of the octroi replied to. duties and the examples selected will have shown their nature, the method of collection, and their general bearing upon foreign manufactures and products. I will turn now to a consideration of some of their effects upon national or Italian industries.

How the Octroi Duties bear upon Italian Industries.

Their bearing on Italian products now considered. The general effects.

Speaking broadly, the most direct and immediate of those effects are to limit the markets of the country to national products and manufactures. What is the effect upon foreign products and manufactures of the wall raised upon the national frontier by a system of high import duties? It checks their entry and limits their consumption within Italian territory. And what will be the effect upon national or Italian products and manufactures of the inner walls that are raised up around every Italian city and town, great and small? Precisely the same. Their entry is checked and consumption limited in every centre of population or market of Italy.

Home markets for Italian products are limited.

But this terrible extension of the indirect taxation of the country produces other evil consequences, a little more hidden perhaps, or less generally recognised. The cost of living is increased in the large centres. The larger the city, the heavier the burdens upon necessaries as well as luxuries. The rate of wage, therefore, is inevitably increased. Manufacturing industries are often, consequently, driven out from the towns-their natural habitat—away to agricultural districts, to seek there the lower wages the peasant is willing to accept, and the lower cost of living the country districts offer, thanks to their freedom from the high octroi duties of the cities.

Manufacturers are driven cut of towns.

If you want to find the chief manufactories of Tuzcany you manufactories must look for them at the foot of the Apennines, along the courses of mountain torrents, such as the Serchio, in districts that a year or two ago were wholly agricultural. There you will find most of the cotton, jute, linen, and paper mills, which the high protection of the last few years has brought into existence, and if you ask the reason of their apparent banishment from

Where Italian are generally to be found.

even the neighbourhood of the large centres of active life, you will learn that they have been established there by no means solely because those watercourses provide them with a cheap motive power, but equally because, the surrounding districts being purely agricultural, wage is low, as is also cost of living. Imagine a Lancashire or Yorkshire manufacturer obliged by octroi duties to transport his establishment, his mills, machinery, and his skilled labour to the midst of an agricultural district in order to take advantage of the labour of the low-paid agricultural classes willing to desert their old occupations for the slightest increase of wage, and to educate those agriculturists to the work of "mill hands." This The reasons migration "en bloc" must also tend to increase the initial cost of of this migrathe establishment of manufactories so isolated, for the lodgment tion from the of the army of labourers required has to be provided for. As towns. you proceed along the banks of the Serchio you will notice that each large manufactory is surrounded by huge barrack-like buildings which have had to be constructed for the mass of their Its inconworkers, for the mill hands must live close to the factory, and veniences and increased cost. cannot, as when they worked at the plough, be scattered sparsely over the country.

In fact, from the point of view of manufacturing industries, the position of Italy without fuel may not inaptly be compared to that of England without steam. Readers of English industrial history will not need to be reminded of the period—just over a century back—when no power but that of water was available for the working of the great labour-saving inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, and Crompton-the "jenny," the "water-frame," and the "mule." Of that short period in the history of the manufacture of our textile fabrics, before the inventions of Watt and Boulton enabled steam to take the place of water as the great motive power, when factories were run up alongside every stream in the manufacturing districts of that day.

Not the least of the evils resulting to national industry from Other evils the extensive powers of local taxation granted to communes under resulting to the octroi system arises from the capricious and sometimes facturing arbitrary manner in which these powers are exercised. I do not industry from mean to say by this that the communes often have exercised those octroi system. powers unreasonably and wrongfully. It would be judging the communes unfairly not to remember that their first and principal sources of revenue are monopolised by the State. But, we are told, "the sur-taxes of 50 per cent. upon the octroi duties levied by the State not proving sufficient for their expenses, the communes have thrown themselves upon all other imaginable articles, taxing often the raw materials necessary to manufacturing indus. tries. Duties are levied in the majority of communes upon coal, Its liability lignite, and peat, upon wood and all materials of construction, to to abuse. the great detriment of industry; and in some communes duties are levied upon paper, upon all printed matter, and even upon fiddle-strings."

The examination we have even so far made of the octroi tariff of the commune of Leghorn has shown us that the above (1028)

description is no exaggeration. The octroi system of Italy is clearly open to great abuses of the nature alluded to, but it cannot in justice be said that the fault lies wholly with the communes.

Its capricious and sometimes arbitrary nature.

The variable and uncertain extent and capricious nature of this form of taxation sometimes tells in another way equally detrimental to local industry. The raw material of one industry may be so heavily taxed in one commune as to render that industry unprofitable, although every natural and economical condition—such as fuel or water for motive power, railway communications, and abundant labour—may be there to aid its development; whereas, in a neighbouring commune, the same raw material may be untaxed, but here the other conditions necessary may be wanting or insufficient.

Its effects considered upon Italian agriculture.

These are some of the more visible effects of octroi taxation upon manufacturing industries. Are the harmful results of this system of indirect contributions as marked and clear upon agriculture? They appear to me to be even more so. Not from the cause only that the establishment of manufacturing industries in the midst of agricultural districts tends further to divert labour and capital from agriculture, and further to depress industries already struggling with foreign competition. That is a cause already much remarked upon, and, I may add, still disputed. The evil result to which I would call attention is the first one I alluded to. It is one that has certainly attracted less notice than the effects of protection, though, perhaps, it is equally hurtful to the country at large. The markets of the country itself—the only ones left to the Italian agriculturist, who can no longer compete in the less fettered, open markets of the world—are limited and narrowed by this all-grasping system of indirect taxation. Foreign competition may be shut out, partially, by protection, but home markets are limited, and in some measure closed by the octroi system. demand for articles essentially Italian, for the production of which climate, soil, and the traditional habits and modes of life of the people equally lend themselves, is narrowed, and the life struggle of the masses increased in severity. We are told that over 70 per cent. of the Italian people live by agriculture, for though the latest statistics give the proportion as 69 per cent., many of those returned as living by other industries are also said to be partly occupied in agriculture. Anything, therefore, that tends to check the expansion of agricultural industry, and limit the demand for the natural products of the country, directly decreases the means of existence of the great majority of the Italian people.

The limitation of home markets to Italian produce.

This hurtful result is injurious to the majority who live by agriculture.

Proofs of above statement.

Italian agricultural industries considered. These, it may be said, are general statements, "where are the proofs?" I turn now to the octroi duties levied upon products essentially Italian—products for which a free sale and an increasing demand throughout the country would be as the breath of life to millions of agricultural workers in Italy. As before I take, in illustration, the duties levied upon their entry into a market containing 100,000 mouths—that of Leghorn.

The breeding and rearing of cattle is one of the chief of Italian Cattle industries. It is fed by a foreign as well as a home demand. To breeding. France alone there were exported in 1886 and 1887 34,920 head of cattle, valued at 438,340%. In 1888-89 the French market was almost closed to Italy, for the tax upon entry into France, which had been only 15 fr. a head in 1881, was then raised to 60 fr. a head. So much the more reason, it will be admitted, for the keeping open of home markets, and encouraging an increased consumption in them. But see the check the octroi duties give. A tax is paid on beef at the Leghorn municipal barrier of 23 lire Octroi duties 75 c. per quintal (9s. 6d. per cwt.), if entered alive—or dead, if on cattle and the carcase be entire—of which 12 lire 50 c. go to the State, and beef.

11 lire 25 c. to the commune. If the meat be cut up it pays 20 lire, having previously paid a "small slaughter tax" levied where it was killed.

For pigs, if alive, or for carcase, if entire, the tax is 21 lire 25 c. On pigs and per quintal (8s. 6d. per cwt.), of which 12 lire 50 c. to Government, and the remainder to the commune.

Fresh meat of all kinds, if cut up, pays an octroi of 20 lire per quintal (8s. per cwt.), of which, again, 12 lire 50 c. forms the proportion taken by the State.

In No. 17 of the tariff we are examining we find a curious and On horse, significant entry, "Carna fresca equina"—the fresh meat of mule, and ass horse—to which heading is added the following ominous note:—
"Besides the flesh and interior of horses that of mules and asses is included in this category." Meat of this description pays a tax of 10 lire per quintal (4s per cwt.) to the municipality.\*

Farm produce of all kinds that can be classed under the head On poultry, of poultry, viz., fowls, ducks, geese, guinea fowl, turkeys, &c., game, &c. pays the larger duty of 30 lire for the same weight (12s. per cwt.).

Another, perhaps the greatest, of Italian home industries is Italian vine the culture of grapes and making of wine. Now wine of all kinds, culture, and if entered in bottle, pays 15 c.  $(l\frac{1}{2}d)$  a bottle to the State, octroi duties and a further 5c. to the municipality. If entered in cask it pays 10 lire per hectolitre  $(4\frac{1}{4}d)$  per gallon), of which 7 lire to the State, and 3 lire to the commune. Wine of the most inferior description, described in the explanatory note as "the juice of sour grapes, watery wine, and a liquor composed of vinegar and water," pays the lower duty of 5 lire 25 c. a hectolitre  $(2\frac{1}{4}d)$  per gallon), divided in the proportion of 3 lire 50 c. and 1 lire 75 c. between the State and the commune.

An always extensive and important industry in the neighbour-Market hood of large towns is that of market gardening, but neither fresh gardening, fruit nor vegetables elude the grasp of the octroi. All fresh duties upon fruit pays 2 lire per quintal to the commune, and garden produce, kitchen garsuch as "garlic, onions, potatoes, turnips, beet-root, carrot, den produce.

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<sup>\*</sup> It is small satisfaction to learn that meat of this description "should be killed in the public slaughter-house, permission having been previously obtained of the mayor."—H. O'N.

artichokes, asparagus, capers, chick-weed, pumpkins, cucumbers, and every other edible fresh vegetable or root" pay to the commune a small tax of 80 c. the quintal (4d. per cwt.); excepting truffles and fungi, which pay the higher duties of 50 lire and 3 lire (1l. and 2s. 5d. per cwt.) respectively.

On fresh eggs and milk.

With the two items of fresh eggs and milk I may conclude this sketch of octroi duties upon agricultural produce. The first pay 7 lire (2s. 9½d. per cwt.), and the latter 3 lire (1½d. per gallon), both of which are levied entirely by the commune.

Are not the examples I have quoted sufficient to convince the reader that the absorption of national products in the markets of Italy is checked by the system of octroi duties, and that their tendency is to restrain the free and active development of the

agricultural industries of the country?\*

How the Octroi Duties bear upon the Consumer.

The effects of octroi taxation upon the consumer considered.

The last part of my inquiry is now reached. Anyone who has read so far as this will see, however, that the question, How do these duties affect the consumer? is already partly answered. It is difficult at all times to separate the consumer entirely from the producer, and this difficulty is increased when we are speaking of a system of duties which affects every form of industry, and embraces nearly every article of consumption. That the "consumer" pays ultimately—to Government directly, if the tax be purely revenual, to the national producer indirectly, if it be protective in character—is clear to all. To those who produce outside the city walls, and sell within them, the consumer pays the tax levied at the gates, no doubt. And these same producers, when purchasing within the city the numberless articles thay cannot obtain outside it, all contribute their share of the octroi taxation.

To what amount is a resident in Italy actually mulct in octroi duties?

But to what extent in actual cash is a family living within a large Italian city mulct annually in octroi duties? This is what I felt it would be very satisfactory to learn and to place before those who really desired to get a clear conception of the extent to which this form of indirect taxation presses. To work it out in your own family would be possible, but in the end the illustration would not be typical of a numerous class.

The expenditure of a Florentine artisan shown.

It has, however, been done in a case that very well answers our purpose by an Italian economical writer, the Marchese Vilfredo Pareto, who has carefully tabulated the expenditure of a sober, industrious artisan's family in the city of Florence. The proportion of this expenditure swallowed up by taxation is clearly shown, and, further, this proportion is subdivided in a manner

<sup>\*</sup> The following telegram, dated 7th January, and sent since the above lines were written, gives so distinct and forcible an illustration of one of the chief effects to which I point that I feel I cannot do better than quote it:—"At Iugo, in the Romagna, the flour merchants have closed their stores in consequence of the new and additional octroi duty imposed on flour. The bakers threaten to close their shops. The population of the town is much excited. A company of infantry has been called for from Ravenna."

that satisfactorily answers our purpose. He shows convincingly the respective amounts that pass to the State, to the province, to the city (in the form of octroi duties), and through the protection given to national manufacturers how much of these hard-

earned gains passes to the national producer.

The family whose record of expenditure he has so minutely obtained consists of four persons, all of them healthy, sober, and in regular employment, as is shown by the fact that nothing was expended in medical treatment throughout the year, and that the sum of their wages reached the respectable total of 2,380 fr. Nor did any member of the family smoke, which caused a sensible diminution of expenses.

The table showing the separate items of expenditure and the Hisstate and indirect taxation upon them I give at once, appending to it a few taxation remarks in explanation of the method of calculation pursued by tabulated. the Marchese Vilfredo Pareto. Here I will only add that, had the artisan in question lived in Leghorn, column 4 would have shown a heavier record of taxation, for the octroi duties are

heavier in this city than in Florence.

In proof of this, it will only be necessaay to take the one item of bread, which, in Leghorn, costs 42 c. the kilogramme, as against 33 c. in Florence, an increase of price due mainly to the higher octroi duties of the first town. Thus, for the same amount of bread, the artisan, had he lived in Leghorn, would have had to pay 493 lire 48 c., instead of 387 lire, an increase of 105 lire 48 c. (41.48.44d.).



TABLE of Expend	nditure o	diture of Family A. throughout the Year showing the Amount of Indirect Taxation paid upon it.	. through	out the Yes	ır showing	g the Amou	int of Ind	irect Taxat	ion paid u	ipon it.
	Annusl	Annusl Expenditure	Amount of	Taxes Paid			Distribution (	Distribution of Tax between	T.	
Items of Expenditure.	a nodu	upon each Article.	by the	by the Family.	The	The State.	Тће	The Town.	National	National Producers.
	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.
	Fr. c.	•	Fr. c.	£ 8. d.	Fr. c.	•	Fr. c.	*	Fr. c.	
Bread and pastes	887 00	16 9 74	93 84		36 11	1 8 10	13 49	0 10 94	44 24	12
Wine	00 470	2 ×	92 84 40 60	10 44	70 00	9 6	10 07	0 0	:	:
Oil	102 00	<b>-</b>	9 99	112 41 0	20 20 40 80	9 00	1 80	1 64	: :	: :
Eggs	68 00	2 14 45	4 88	0 8 103	:		4 88	0 3 103	::	: <b>:</b>
Milk	36 50	1 9 2	3 60	0 2 104	:	:	3 60	0 2 104	:	· :
Butter.	54 75	2 3 94	4 44	0 8 64	7 7 8	0 2 44	1 48	0 1 24	:	:
Vegetables and fruit.	127 75	5 2 24	8 80	\$0 L 0	:	:	8 80	0 7 04	:	:
Cheese	36 50	1 9 24	9 8	0 2 104	:	:	8	0 2 104	:	:
Coal	00 09	8	မ ရ	0 20	:		08 9	0 2 0	:	:
Rice	36 60	1 9 34	10 06	8 0	1 22	0 0 11\$	2 13	0 1 8	6 71	0 5 44
Coffee	56 26 26	16 0 1	10 29		08 6	0 7 10	0 49	0 0	:	:
Sugar	8	0 80 87	36 20		85 40	8 8	08 0	\$2 0 0	:	:
Petroleum	89 20	1 11 44	23 35	0 18 84	22 46	0 17 114	08 0	0	:	:
Candles	36 00	100	200	0 4	:	:	7.6	100	200	2 105
Soap and sods	11 40	8 0	0 04	1000	:		0 04	\$0 0 0	000	0
Self.	13 20		11 11	\$01 8 O	11 11	\$0T & 0	:	:	:	:
Plate	24 00	0 19 24	4 00	# 2 × 0	0 40	38 0	:	:	8 80	0 2 10 <del>1</del>
Clothing	208 00	8 4 9	37 05	1 9 7	6 40	0 5 14	:	:	80 65	4
Dressmaker	15 00	0 13 0	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Washing	48 00	1 18 44	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Other small expenses	10 00	0 8 0	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Total	1,958 90	78 8 14	848 62	18 14 114	181 87	7 6 61	73 45	2 18 0	89 80	8 11 64
,					•	_	•	_	-	

The total amount paid in indirect contributions then, out of Total indirect an expenditure of 1,953 lire 9 c., in the alsolute necessaries of duties paid. life, is 343 lire 6 c., or more than one lira in every six. Of this 254 lire 3 c. are paid in the duties we have been considering. viz., the octroi levied at the city gates. The remaining 89 lire are said by Signor Pareto to be pocketed by the national pro-Proportion of ducer; and as this forms a very interesting estimate from the above taken point of view of the real effects of protection, it is worth while by the national looking to see how he has arrived at it. Take the first item of producer. bread and pastes or macaroni and the like, which I need not say

are largely consumed in Italy.

Out of a total expenditure of 387 lire (15l. 9s. 71d.) on bread, Signor 93 lire 8 c. (3l. 15s. 0\frac{3}{4}d.), we are told, is paid by the artisan in diffe- Pareto's rent forms of taxation. How is this estimate obtained? Signor estimate Pareto first compares the price of bread in London, where flour examined. enters free from duty of any kind, with its cost in Florence. The comparative cost at that time was 28 c. and 33 c. the kilo., or bread in Florence costs 8 c. more the kilo. than in England. The total amount consumed by the Italian family is 1,173 kilos., or 11.73 quintals. This amount multiplied by the difference in price will give us the excess paid by the Florentine over the London artisan, or 11 lire 73 c.  $\times$  8 = 93 lire 84 c. this total before we can learn the amount that passes to the national producer we must learn what goes to the State under the customs duty; what to the State under the octroi; and what proportion also is paid under the octroi to the city.

Now the State claims in an octroi duty on flour 2 lire per The State quintal, therefore 2 lire × 11 lire 73 c. or 23 lire 46 c. gives us octroi.

the proportion paid to the State under the octroi.

The city of Florence claims an octroi of 1 lire 15 c. per The city quintal, therefore 1 lire 15 c. x 11 lire 73 c. or 13 lire 49 c. octroi.

represents the part taken by the city.

Again, the customs duty on wheat is 5 line per quintal, but The State this duty is in reality only paid on two-ninths of the total amount duty. annually consumed in Italy, for only that proportion of the total annual consumption of wheat is imported from abroad. To learn, therefore, that part paid by the artisan in customs dues we must calculate that only two-ninths of the amount annually consumed by him has passed the frontier. And so our next calculation will be two-ninths  $\times$  11 lire 73 c.  $\times$  5 = 11 lire 92 c. or the amount paid in customs dues.

Add up now these 3 items:—

Total legitimate taxation.

	Currency.	Sterling.
To State in octroi duty, city ,, ,, State in customs duty	Lire c. 23 46 18 49 11 92	£ s. d. 0 18 9± 0 10 9± 0 9 6±
Total	48 87	1 19 14



Above total does not equal excess paid for bread.

National producera take difference legitimate taxation and excess of cost of bread.

Remaining calculations are similarly based.

Total direct

But we have seen that the whole difference in the price of the bread if bought in London and its price if bought in Florence is 93 lire 84 c., whereas the sum of all the taxes on the bread consumed is only 48 lire 87 c. If the difference in the cost of the bread were only due to the above items of taxation the Italian would only have to pay 48 lire 87 c. more—not 93 lire The additional cost is clearly due to some other cause. This cause, Signor Pareto tells us, lies in the fact that the remaining seven-ninths of wheat consumed, that is, the proportion of wheat produced in Italy, is sold at nearly the same price as the between total two-ninths that comes from abroad, and which has had to bear the heavy protective duty of 50 lire per ton. In other words, the difference of 44 lire 97 c. (93 lire 84 c. - 48 lire 87 c.) finds its way into the pockets of the national producer.\*

For none of the other items showing the proportion taken by the national producer have we sufficient data given to analyse Signor Pareto's figures in the manner I have done above. are, however, assured that they are calculated on the same bases,

and there is, I think, no question of their accuracy. So much for the indirect contributions levied upon this family taxation paid of artisans. This does not, however, represent the whole of their burden of taxation. In direct taxes they paid in the same year a total of 222 lire 37 c. (8l. 17s. 101d.), which was divided in the following manner:-

### DIRECT Taxes paid by Family A.

items shown.	
	Incom Specia

Different

							Curre	ncy.	St	erli	ng.
Income tax to the Special tax on inc			- 171 <sub>0</sub> .				Lire 134	c. 40	£	s. 7	d. 61
improvements a Family tax to the	ınd pul	olic we	orks of	the ci	t <b>y</b>	٠.	11	20	0	8	11 <u>}</u>
(See Art. 147 o House Tax.—Signed really falls on r	f Provi nor V. ent, an	ncial Parete d is	and Co estin borne l	mmun ates the	al Law) his bur tenant.	den It	5	74	0	4	7
amounts to 71 between the S						ded					
State	• •		• •		• •	•••	30	47	1	4	41
Province				••			10	78	1	8	10 <del>1</del>
Commune	••	••	••	••	••	••	29	88	0	8	7
Total	direct	taxat	ion		••	••	222	87	8	17	101

Percentage of taxation to expenditure shown.

If now we sum up the taxation, direct and indirect, borne by this typical family, we find it reaches a total of 565 lire 63 c. (221. 12s. 6d.), and that it is distributed in the following proportions:-

<sup>\*</sup> The amount paid to the national producer in Signor Pareto's table is shown as 44 lire 24 c. I have worked out my figures independently and therefore leave them, as the difference of 73 c. is insignificant. It is probably due to some slight difference between the price of bread and pastes allowed for by Signor Pareto. –H.O'N.

		Taxation.		Per cent. of the Total Expenditure	
To the State	••	Lire 846 119 10 89	c. 74 22 87 80	14-7 5-0 0-4 8-8	
Total taxation		565	68	28.9	

The interest and value of the above calculations are greatly Taxation of increased to the English reader by the comparison, made by Signor English with Pareto, with the burdens due to taxation that fall upon the family Italian artisan of an English artisan possessing an almost according to The The of an English artisan possessing an almost equal wage. figures he quotes were supplied to him by Mr. Crofts, the secretary of the "Liberty and Property Defence League."

The wage of the English artisans' family—which I give in lire as well as sterling for the sake of easy comparison with the above figures—amounted in the year in question to 1,915 lire.

The taxation borne by them is divided into:—

The Englishman's taxes.

I. Indirect or imperial taxes. II. Direct taxes or local rates.

Under the first head, thanks to free trade and the simplification Indirect and of our customs tariff, the Englishman paid only for three items of imperial. his daily consumption, as follows:—

Articles.				Currency,		Sterling.		
Tea Cocoa Beer	••	**	••		Lire 16 2 5	e. 20 70 15	e. 18 2	d. 0 2 1
Tota	al amor	nt paid	to the	State	24	05	19	8

Under the second head of direct taxes or local rates the Direct and English artisan, who in this particular case rented a house at 121. local. per annum, paid:-

	Currency.	St	Sterling.		
	Lire,	£	8.	d.	
(5) Poor rate, police, school, lighting, paving and cleaning of streets, 5s. per pound upon an assessed					
value of 84	50	2	0	0	
of house	10	0	8	0	
Total direct taxation or local rates	60.	2	8	0	

Taxation of Englishman and Italian is as 1 to 5.4.

Now compare this with the burden of taxation pressing upon The Englishman pays in all 3l. 7s. 3d. the Italian artisan. (84 lire 5 c.), that is, 4.4 per cent. of his whole earnings. Italian of the same class pays 565 lire 63 c., or 23.9 per cent. of his whole expenditure. The difference in favour of the English worker is enormous.

Comment upon such figures is unnecessary, and would indeed be out of place here. If in giving them I have strayed a little from the subject of octroi duties it is because their interest will, I believe, justify me in so doing with all who are interested in the social and economical condition of Italy and occupy themselves with questions of comparative taxation.

History of briefly sketched.

Before concluding these remarks it may be well to remind octroitaxation ourselves that octroi taxation is one of the most ancient of all forms of indirect contribution, and it will not be useless nor uninteresting, I think, to glance at its past history as well as at its present position in European countries at the present day.\*

Its ancient part of the tributary system of Rome. Under the kings.

If age and universal custom in the past sanctioned and justified character. A the imposition of a duty, then surely this form of contribution may be amply defended. Duties in every respect similar to the octroi of the present day formed a regular part of the tributary system of Rome in its earliest days, for if we go back beyond the empire and beyond the republic again to the days of the kings we find them in full force, and the popular voice already agitating against them. Livy asserts that under the name of "Vectigal" duties upon articles of consumption were levied with the " portoria," or general duties upon introduction at the city gates; and he also tells us that these were all suppressed, and the people freed from them, upon the expulsion of "the last of the kings," Tarquinius—" portoriis et tributis plebe liberata." But not for very long, for under the republic the same author testifies they By Cicero, again, we are told that the were re-established. "portoria" were suppressed in Italy in his day, not so much because of their weight as because of the vexations and annoyances at all times inseparable from their collection—"non portorii onus sed portitorum injuria." But, again, they were introduced in the time of the emperors, and, side by side with the taxation of

Under the republic.

Under the empire.

articles imported from abroad, these duties appear to have been then greatly extended.

After the fall of the Roman Empire this system of taxation partook, as was natural, of the general confusion that reigned throughout the country. Only one thing is clear, they were everywhere imposed in some shape or form. Contributions which had been submitted to from the earliest periods of Roman history were not likely to fall into disuse in the age of feudal of the middle oppression, and feudal lords of every degree amply availed

A common contribution age

For this brief historical sketch I am chiefly indebted to the following authors:-Sabastiana Gianza, "Commento alle Leggi sui Dezi di Consumo," 1885; G. B. Cereseto, "Commento alle Leggi sulle Imposte Communali," 1889; Enrico Mazzocolo, "La Nuova Legge Communale e Provinciale," 1890; Turquin, "Manuel des Octrois" (Poictiers), 1886.

themselves of them. There was not a village or hamlet of Italy that did not pay to its signorial lords the duties imposed on articles of consumption and merchandise introduced within its limits, and hardly a bridge existed on which transit dues of the

same kind were not imposed.\*

With the decline of feudalism and the extension of popular Under the government, which accompanied the growth of the Italian free Italian cities and republics, there was a gradual suppression of this republics. amongst other forms of feudal tyranny, and out of the chaos of indiscriminate and universal indirect taxation that had existed some system and order were restored with the renewed security given to trade. But whilst roads were opened, and the country was cleared of feudal obstruction, indirect taxation at the city walls appears to have been constant, and to have formed a chief source of revenue for the Italian republics even at the most brilliant period of their commercial development. That these Their duties died slow and died hard there can be no doubt, but that decline in they did die in many parts of Italy, and more especially in certain parts liberal Piedmont and Tuscany, the official statistics I have quoted at the beginning of this report will have shown.

Strong popular movements appear generally to have swept Popular them clean away, and perhaps Italy affords the only instance feeling where a revolution (which was, however, very different in them character and results to most) has not been followed by their constant. disappearance. ()ne of the first acts of the "Assemblée Revolutionary Constituante" of France in 1791 was the abolition of "all duties movements levied upon the entrance of goods into cities, towns, and extinguished villages." But the abolition of the tax did not diminish the need them. of revenue, and only six years after we find them being gradually Their reintroduced in Paris for the declared object of the relief of the abolition a distressed poor, under the less offensive name of "taxe de bien-first act of faisance." Other large cities of the republic driven by want of Revolution. money soon followed the example of the capital, and in the year 1800 the octroi duties were practically re-established in France:— Their "Il sera établi des octrois municipaux et de bienfaisance sur les re-establishobjets de consommation locale dans les villes dont les hospices ment. civils n'ont pas de revenus suffisants pour leurs besoins."

Upon their reintroduction, however, the communes had little Their or no power over their disposition, and under the First Empire administrathe supervision and control of the central authorities over these by the sources of municipal revenue was steadily increased, until in central 1812 their collection and administration was placed entirely, Government, in the hands of the Government. Liberty in respect to these but given chief sources of their revenue was restored to the communes at communes on the Restoration by the law of April 28, 1816, which still forms the Restorathe basis of the octroi legislation of France.

The history of popular revolution in Spain shows also the Spain. extreme dislike of the people to this form of indirect taxation. revolution of 1868 abolishes The "consumos," or octroi duties, were entirely suppressed by one them. of the first decrees of the Provincial Government which succeeded

<sup>\*</sup> Cibrario, "Economia Politica dal Medio Evo."

A progressive capitation tax is substituted for them.

the expulsion of Queen Isabella; and I would call attention to tae fact that the tax substituted for the octroi, and by which it was intended the revenue derived from octroi duties should be replaced, was a capitation tax, and that it was progressive. this direct tax encountered too strong an opposition, and was never in fact put thoroughly into force throughout the country. Many of the cities were compelled through sheer emptiness of purse to reimpose the "consumos," and in 1870 we see them re-established in Spain.

But they are re established. Belgium. Agitation against them dates from 1848. They are abolished. And replaced by excise.

In Belgium, again, the beginning of the agitation against the octroi duties dates from the revolutionary period of 1847-48, and the popular movement for their extinction did not cease until their suppression in 1860. Their place has been taken, and the communal burdens are borne by a proportion of the excise duties upon wine, spirits, vinegar, and sugar, and by a tax upon the entry

In Holland, they are abolished in 1866.

In Holland the octroi duties were wholly abolished in 1866, and the communal revenue they produced was replaced by a number of centimes added to the land tax and some other forms of direct taxation, and by a tax that in most countries where it has been levied has proved equally unpopular—the "milling tax," or tax on the grinding of corn.

And replaced by certain direct taxes.

In Denmark there are no duties levied of an octroi character, nor, so far as I can learn, is this form of contribution practised in Russia.

finance," and that whilst in some the octroi contributions are still those that existed in the eighteenth century, in others they have entirely given place to other more direct forms of modern taxation. Thus, in Bavaria, the aristocracy (Dourghlaut and Erghlaut) still

retain their ancient privilege of introducing into the towns where they reside all articles of consumption required by them and their retainers free of any octroi duty, although these duties may be imposed upon the rest of the inhabitants, and it appears that this relic of the feudal ages is only gradually disappearing by private agreements and arrangements with the municipal authorities.

The different systems of municipal taxation pursued in the

They do not exist in Denmark and Russia.

German EmpireMunicipal Empire of Germany are far too complex and varied in character taxation is for me to pretend to give any description of them here. sometimes told that "the different German States have preserved their direct, some-

times indirect, autonomy in all that concerns municipal administration

Bavaria.

Baden.

Hesse.

Wurtemberg.

limited in number. In the Grand Duchy of Hesse also these contributions are only imposed in a few of the larger cities. Wurtemberg municipal treasuries are nourished by direct taxes, Saxe-Weimar. but in the Grand Duchy of Saxe-Weimar octroi dues are levied in the majority of the towns.

the Grand Duchy of Baden octroi duties are only levied in a few of the cities, and those are of the lightest character, and are

Prussia.

It is noteworthy that in Prussia the municipal contributions differ in character in the towns and in the rural communes, for whilst in the latter they consist wholly of direct taxes, the towns are permitted, in case of insufficiency of revenue, to levy indirect octroi duties. But these in every case, and however small the They are proposed tax may be, must be approved of first by the central wholly surgovernment. It should not pass unnoticed that octroi duties pressed in have been wholly suppressed in Berlin.

Such, in the fewest possible words, is the general position of The feeling octroi taxation in most European countries at the present day. I against octroi don't think it is saying too much to assert that everywhere, as taxation extends as its education advances, and their effects are better understood, effects are popular opposition to them grows in strength, and only the direct better grasped. necessity maintains their imposition. But two governments exist, and those the most Conservative of modern Europe—apart from Russia—in which the central governments continue to regard these duties as an essential and integral part of State taxation. I mean the governments of Austria and Spain, for in Italy this

principle can only be said to be partly enforced.

Popular disapproval and discontent at this form of taxation Opposition to can well be understood. It is only necessary to ask the question: it is easily How long would the inhabitants of an English city suffer themselves to be walled in for the sole purpose of controlling and taxing the supplies needed for their consumption, and how long would they submit to have every vehicle and person passing through the gates stopped and examined, and their loads, if taxable, Its vexations weighed and subjected to the necessary formalities and delays and incon-Every van-load of small cause of entailed by a system of octroi taxation? goods, every market and costermonger's cart, every woman with a this. basket of fresh vegetables or what not on her arm, must pass through the same ordeal. It is such small vexations as these, as well as the fact that prepayment is required of a tax on goods not yet sold, and which possibly may not be sold at all, that give rise to the irritation against them common to all classes, but felt, Their increasperhaps, most intensely by the poor. And after all that has been larity will said there can be no doubt that the feeling is one that has good probably refoundation, and this, as well as the modern history of octroi duties, act upon Parmark them as amongst the first forms of taxation to disappear liament and the Government relief from the now overpowering burden of taxation ment. becomes possible.

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REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Parliamentary Paper, Commercial No. 26, 1883.

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Reference to previous Report, Parliamentary Paper, Commercial No. 26, 1883.

## ITALY.

#### ROME.

The Marquis of Dufferin and Ava to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Rome, March 2, 1891.

I HAVE the honour to forward to your Lordship a very interesting and remarkable Report on the Economic Progress of Italy during the last 25 years, which has been drawn up by Mr. Dering, Secretary of Her Majesty's Embassy, from Official data to which he was permitted access.

I have, &c.\_\_\_

(Signed) DUFFERIN AND AVA.

### Mr. Dering to the Marquis of Dufferin and Ava.

My Lord, Rome, March 2, 1891.

I AM indebted to the courtesy of Signor Bodio, head of the Italian Statistical Department, for the loan of notes made by him for a still unpublished statistical work on this country, from which, by his permission, I have extracted the information

contained in the enclosed Report.

This Report deals with a vast variety of subjects, and presents a fair picture of the Italy of to-day, as compared with 25 years ago, from a sanitary, commercial, and industrial point of view, dealing further with agriculture and emigration, as well as with navigation and the railway and telegraph systems, besides numerous other topics of interest.

I have, &c.
(Signed) HENRY NEVILL DERING.

Statistical Data indicative of the Economic Progress of Italy.

When the kingdom of Italy was proclaimed on March 17, 1861, Area. it measured about 250,000 square kiloms.; when Venice and the Mantuan districts were added to it, it was increased by about (1033)

2 ITALY.

25,500 square kiloms.; and on the annexation of the city and province of Rome a further 12,000 square kiloms. were again added.

The superficial measurements hitherto available were inexact. The Military Geographical Institution has now stated the total superficial area of the kingdom to be 286,588 square kiloms., divided as under:—

Continental and peninsular portion, including small islands administratively dependent upon it (islands in the Tuscan Archipelago, the Parthenopeian Archipelago, Tremiti, &c.), 236,771 square kiloms.

Sicily and the islands administratively dependent therefrom (Lipari isles, Ustica, Egadi, Pantellaria, Linosa, Lampedusa, &c.),

25,740 square kiloms.

Population.

Sardinia and minor adjacent islands (Asinara, San Pietro, Sant' Antioco, Caprera, Maddalena, &c.), 24,077 square kiloms.

The population which, according to the first census taken on December 31, 1861, amounted to 21,777,334 inhabitants, reached 26,801,154 in 1871, inclusive of 2,810,000 in the territory added in 1866, and 837,000 in the province of Rome. Without excepting the districts of Venice and Rome it is estimated that the population of Italy at the end of 1861 was probably about 25,000,000.

On December 31, 1881, the third general census gave a result of 28,459,628 souls. Adding to this number, year by year, the amount of births, minus the amount of deaths, the population of Italy, at the close of 1889, would appear to have been 30,947,306. Taking, however, into account both open and clandestine emigration, which certainly exceeded in number immigration and repatriation of every description, it is probable that the actual population of the kingdom does not exceed 30,000,000 souls.

One may cast a glance at the relative excess of births over deaths in Italy and some other European states during the last

few years per 1,000 of population:

#### Excess of Births over Deaths.

States.	1887.	1888.	1889.
Italy	10.82	9.88	12:50
France	2.32	1.16	2.80
Great Britain and Ireland	11.58	11.87	11.67
England and Wales	12.59	12.88	12.69
Scotland	12.50	12.90	12.16
Ireland	4.92	4.95	5.27
Germany	12.78	12.38	12.77
Austria	9.41	8.78	10.60
Hungary	10.47	11.85	20 00
Switzerland	7.62	7.79	7.80
Sweden	13.53	12.61	
Norway	14.87	18.84	12.28
Denmark	18.64	13.40	12.73

ROME. 3

The excess, it will be seen, of births over deaths in Italy varies from 10 to 12 per 1,000 inhabitants, which approximates to the figures of England, Scotland, Germany, Hungary, and the Scandinavian kingdoms.

Emigrants from Italy may be considered as divided into two Emigration.

separate categories—temporary and permanent; the former composed of persons going abroad in search of employment for a period more or less limited, the latter composed of emigrants leaving the country for an indefinite period with no fixed intention

of returning.

The statistics concerning emigration have been arrived at in various ways, the one serving as a check upon the other. Between them all it is possible to arrive at a reasonable solution. The chief source is the Passport Registry Office. These returns are checked by those given by the captains of Italian and of those foreign ports whence Italian citizens usually embark, and these two are checked again by the statistical returns from the countries

to which the emigrants are bound.

The number, however, of passports delivered can never account entirely for the number of emigrants, as it cannot include the clandestine emigration, composed as it is principally of those wishing to avoid military service. Emigrants, however, recruited principally from peasants and operatives, generally provide themselves with passports in order to claim protection from the Italian Consul domiciled in the country to which they intend to emigrate. On the other hand, there exists always a certain number of chance persons to whom passports are granted for purposes of study or temporary absence for health in foreign countries. The difference between these two classes is regulated by a tariff. Passports for declared emigrants are issued at a price of 2 fr. 40 c., whilst those for other persons are charged 12 fr. 40 c. (about 10s.).

The number of emigrants derived from the three abovementioned sources can scarcely ever tally, and this for various reasons. Many Italians declare their temporary departure for France in search of employment, which if they do not find they often

embark either at Marseilles or Bordeaux for America.

Whilst temporary emigration has oscillated between 90,000 in 1876 to 105,000 in 1889, the number of permanent emigrants, which at the end of 1878 was about 20,000, rose to about 40,000 in the three successive years (1879-80-81), increasing to 66,000 in 1882, to 85,000 in 1886, to 128,000 in 1887, and to 196,000 in 1888. In 1889 the number fell to 113,000.

Italian permanent emigration proceeds principally from Liguria, the Venetian provinces, Lombardy, and Piedmont. In the provinces of Emilia scarcely at all, nor in Tuscany, nor from Umbria; none from Rome, where, on the contrary, an immigration is yearly evident from all parts of Italy. Here and there in the Marches there is some slight emigration; but in the Neapolitan district, especially in the provinces of Salerno, Campobasso, Cosenza, and Basilicata, it is very large. Slight from Sicily, and scarcely per (1033)

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ceptible in Sardinia. Emigrants proceed almost entirely to the

Argentine Republic, Brazil, and the United States.

Temporary emigration consists of hand artificers of all classes who seek work abroad on railways, fortifications, canals, buildings, &c. They leave generally in the spring and return to their villages in the autumn, when the cold weather puts a stop to their labours. This category of emigrants are spread over France, Switzerland, Austria, the Balkan Peninsula, and some of the northern States of Europe. They principally come from the Venetian provinces, Piedmont, and Lombardy.

Adding the number of Italians embarked in 1889 at the ports of Bordeaux, Havre, Marseilles, St. Nazaire, Hamburg, Bremen, and Antwerp (27,856) to that of Italian passengers embarked at native ports for America (134,081), we find a total of 161,937; whilst the returns furnished by the various syndicates of the communes give the number of emigrants as only 113,093. Here

we have a difference of over 48,000.

If we consult the statistical returns of immigration of the various countries it will be found that, in 1889, 30,238 Italians arrived in the United States, 88,647 in the River Plate, 36,124 in Brazil—together, 155,009; without reckoning those who landed in Uruguay, Chile, Peru, Mexico, and other American countries.

Compared, therefore, with the 161,937 emigrants which started from Italian and foreign ports for the New World, we ascertain that 155,009, according to official returns, arrived in the River Plate, Brazil, and the United States—the only American States of which emigration statistics are available. The proportion of this immigration was as under:—

	Year	<b>5.</b>	į	United States.	Argentine Republic.	Brazil.	Total.
1882	•••			29,487	29,587	10,562	69,586
1883	• •	••		29,537	87.048	12,569	79,149
1884	••	••		14,493	31,983	7,988	54,409
1885	••	• •		15,485	68,501	17,589	96,575
1886	• •	••		30,565	48,828	14,386	88,229
1887	••	••		48,256	67,139	40,157	153,552
1888	•••	• •		47,856	75,029	104,353	227,288
1889	••	••		80,288	88,647	86,124	155,009

Sanitary and hygienic condition of the country.

A decided improvement has taken place in these respects between 1862-89. Between 1862-66 the annual mortality was estimated, upon an average, at 30.06 per 1,000, without distinction of sex or age. This proportion diminished to 27.7 for the five years 1883-87, to 27.6 in 1888, and to 25.6 in 1889.

The improvement abovementioned is specially apparent in the better preservation of infant life. In the series of years between 1868-72 in every 1,000 births (exclusive of still-born children) there occurred a mortality of 225 under the age of 12 months; this proportion sank to 213 during the period 1873-77, to 207.2 from 1878-82, to 195.9 in 1883-87, and amounted in 1888 to 196.8.

BONE.

A further improvement in the hygienic state of the country is found in the examination of the number of cases of illness and of death from endemic and infectious diseases.

The annual record of causes of death was comenced in 1881, Causes of but up to 1886 these statistics were confined to 284 chief pro-mortality. vincial towns and districts, with from 7,000,000 to 7,500,000 of fever. inhabitants. In these communes there died of malarious fever in 1881, 4,338; in 1882, 3,402; 3,252 in 1883; 2,977 in 1884; 3,234 in 1885; 3,748 in 1886; 3,240 in 1887, and 2,594 in 1888. In every 10,000 inhabitants the proportion of deaths from this cause was in 1881, 6.2; 1882, 4.9; 1883, 4.6; 1884, 4.2; 1885, 4.5; 1886, 5.0; 1887, 4.8, and in 1888, 3.4.

5

In 1887 the statistics of mortality were extended to all communes both urban and rural. In that year the deaths throughout the kingdom from malarious fever amounted to 21,033, or 6.9 in every 10,000; and in 1888 to 15,987, or 5.2 in every 10,000

of the population.

The deaths from "pellagra," or skin disease attendant on excessive poor nourishment, especially Indian corn, alone show a certain diminution, whereas up to 1887 deaths from this cause in the 284 communes abovementioned averaged nearly 2,000 annually, they diminished in 1887 to 1,182, and to 1,238 in 1888. In the whole of Italy the deaths from "pellagra" were noted at 3,688 in 1887, and 3,483 in 1888. This disease is confined to northern and central Italy, a case has hardly ever been known south of Rome or in the islands. In spite of the above amelioration the sanitary condition of Italy is still far from satisfactory.

An inquiry held in 1885 revealed the fact that in 6,401 communes not one single drain existed, even for carrying off the rain water; that in 1,313 communes whose principal streets had a drain it only served to carry off rain water; and in 97 communes only was any arrangement by which sewerage could be carried off. This same inquiry revealed further, that in 3,636 communes, with a population of 10,734,145, but very few houses were provided with privies, and in 1,286 communes, with a population of 2,762,082, not one single house was so provided.

On the same occasion, 1,881 communes, with a population of 9,521,841, declared that their drinking-water was bad or indifferent, and 1,495 communes, with a population of 6,024,375, declared their

supply quite deficient in quantity.

These sad hygienic conditions of so large a number of communes, both as to the sanitary state of dwelling-houses and the purity of drinkable water, have been the cause of a deplorable number of deaths from infectious diseases.

The following table shows at a glance the conditions of mortality from various infectious diseases during 1887-88, both in Italy and in England and Wales:-

		Num	ber.		Proporti	on to a m	illion pop	ulation
Deaths.	Italy.		England.		Italy.		England.	
	1887.	1858.	1887.	1888.	1887.	1888.	1887.	1988.
Small-pox	16,249	18,110	506	1,026	537	594	18	36
Mcaales	23,768	20,961	16,765	9,784	785	687	594	311
Scarlet fever	14,681	9,050	7,859	6,378	489	297	278	222
Diphtheria and croup	28,278	25,683	8,422	8,447	982	841	298	295
Typhoid fever	27,278	23,453	5,462	5,284	901	769	193	184
Typhus	1,904	2,099	211	160	63	69	7	6
Puerperal fever	2,504	2,451	2,450	2,386	83	80	87	83
Malarious fever	21,083	15,987	193	159	695	524	7	6
Syphilis	1,853	1,907	2,064	1,927	63	63	. 78	67
Hydrophobia	108	106	29	14	3	8	1	•••
Cholera	8,150		462	•••	269	·	16	•••
Hooping cough	11,140	7,683	11,551	12,287	369	250	409	428
Total deaths from								
all causes	828,992	820,431	530,758	510,758	28,100	27,600	18,790	17,799

The population of Italy and that of England and Wales are about equal; in 1887 the population of the latter kingdom was stated to be 28,250,000; while that of Italy in the same year was about 30,000,000; the difference, however, in the total number of deaths from all causes in 1887 was, in round numbers, as 829,000 is to 531,000, and in 1888 as 820,000 to 511,000. The result per 1,000 for the two years was, in Italy, 28·1 and 27·6; and in England and Wales 18·7 and 17·8. Such a difference furnishes matter for serious reflection.

Material condition of the working classes.

In so far as food is concerned the condition of the Italian urban and rural working class can scarcely be considered satisfactors.

It has been carefully computed that the average weekly consumption of an adult workman in fair circumstances in north and central Italy consists of 750 grammes (1½ lbs.) of fresh meat; 4,700 grammes (about 9½ lbs.) of bread; 900 grammes (17½ lb.) of wheaten "pasta"; 1,400 grammes (nearly 3 lbs.) of maize, either in the form of polenta or of bread; 350 grammes (½ lb.) of cheese, or a litre of milk; 850 grammes (3½ lbs.) of rice; 350 grammes (½ lb.) of dried fish or salt meat; 2,000 grammes (4 lbs.) of vegetables and green stuff; 4 litres to 5 litres of wine; and a small quantity of alcohol.

For workmen in the south of Italy the weekly ration of fresh meat dwindles down to 405 grammes (a little more than \( \frac{3}{4} \] lb.); that of bread increases to 6,300 grammes (12\( \frac{1}{2} \] lbs.); that of wheaten "pasta" to 3,000 grammes (6 lbs.); that of cheese to 400 grammes or over (about \( \frac{4}{2} \] lb.); maize is not used; the consumption of rice is reduced to 200 grammes (\( \frac{2}{3} \] lb.); and that of salt fish or flesh to 100 grammes (\( \frac{1}{3} \] lb.); but a considerable amount of fresh fish is eaten, with some 4,000 grammes (8 lbs.) of vegetables and green food, and about \( \frac{5}{3} \] litres of wine.

For day labourers in northern Italy the average weekly food is reduced to the following items:—Fresh meat, 200 grammes (\frac{1}{2} \text{lb.}); wheaten "pasta," 2,000 grammes (4 \text{lb.}); maize, 4,000 grammes (8 \text{lb.}); cheese, 200 grammes (\frac{1}{2} \text{lb.}); salt flesh or fish,

200 grammes (\frac{2}{3} lb.); rice, 500 grammes (1 lb.); vegetables and green food, 2,000 grammes (4 lbs.); wine, about 1 litre.

Among the peasantry the consumption of meat is very scant, except on feast days, and but little wine is drunk. Living is almost exclusively confined to cereals (wheat, maize, rice), with vegetables and other green herbs, cooked with bacon. The food in general is very deficient in nitrogenous qualities, the bulk of which is derived from vegetable rather than from animal food.

The abuse of alcohol is less extensive in Italy than in the Alcoholism. countries of northern Europe, so far, at least, as one can judge from the more serious apparent effects of this vice, resulting in death from delirium tremens or chronic alcoholism. Below are comparative statistics of deaths from this cause in Italy and other European States during the two years 1887 and 1888:—

	Con	nter			1887.	1888.	Proportion to Million		
Country.					1001.	1887.	1888.		
Italy			•••		484	423	15	14	
Russia	••	••	••		1,108	582	· 88	20	
Belgium		••	••		882	817	. 56	51	
England		••			1,442	1,456	51	03	
Scotland			• •		194	195	49	49	
Ireland			••		125	158	26	29	
Sweden	••	•••	••		54	56	64	65	

The various provinces in Italy show very differently under this head. Whilst the population of the Neapolitan provinces and Sicily can, indeed, call themselves sober, as the proportion of deaths in these districts from alcoholism scarcely reaches one to every 100,000 inhabitants, in Sardinia the proportion in 1888 reached four in every 100,000; in the Marches three; and in Piedmont, Liguria, Lombardy and Venice, two in every 100,000. Alcoholism is, besides, decidedly on the increase. Alcoholic maniacs, treated in asylums, who, in 1887, numbered 359, rose in 1883 to 582, and in 1888 to 723.

Amongst insufficient sanitary precautions in Italy is the want Small lox. of care in preventing the spread of small-pox. Statistics of causes of death prove that in the provincial capitals and large towns, in which vaccination should have been more regularly enforced than elsewhere, 1,811 persons died of small-pox in 1881; 884 in 1882; 496 in 1883; 1,482 in 1884; 2,840 in 1885; 4,638 in 1886; 3,712 in 1887; and 5,449 in 1888. The returns from the whole of the kingdom, without distinction between town and country, gave, in 1887, 16,249 deaths from small-pox, and 18,110 in 1888. There were 64,078 cases of small-pox officially notified in 1888, and 39,730 in 1889. Up to 1890 there have been reported only 16,756 cases.

The following table of mortality will show the proportion of

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deaths in Italy from this cause, as compared with those in other European countries:—

Country.	Year.	Deaths.	Proportion in 100,000.
Italy	1887	16,249	58.7
,,	1888	18,110	59· <del>1</del>
Austria	1887	8,794	40.0
,,	188 <b>8</b>	9,591	42.0
Belgium	1887	610	10.2
"	1888	865	14.8
Prussia	1887	148	0.5
,,	1888	84	0.8
Bavaria	1885	17	0.8
,,	1886	7	0.1
England and Wales	1887	506	1.8
- 1	1888	1,026	8.6
Scotland "	1886	24	0.4
,,	1887	17	0.3
Ireland	1887	14	0.3
,,	18 <b>8</b> 8	8	0.1
Switzerland	1887	14	0.2
,,	1888	17	0.6
Holland	1887	18	0.4
,,	1888	1	0.0
Sweden	1887	1 5 9	0.1
,	1888	9	0.2

Vaccination has been for many years obligatory in the States of the German Empire, in Great Britain and Ireland, in Sweden, and in Switzerland. In Italy it was only made obligatory by the Law of December 22, 1888, under the operation of which it may be hoped that the present percentage of deaths under this head may be reduced to the level of other countries.

Elementary education.

The diffusion of elementary education in Italy can be gathered from the increase in number both of scholars and teachers; indirectly from the decrease of illiterates, as shown by the census; by the examination of recruits for military service; and also by the parish registers, where bride and bridegroom are required to affix their signatures to the marriage contract.

The number of scholars in elementary schools, both public and private, has increased as under:—

	Year.	Total.	Jn Sel	hools.
	I cai.	Tour.	Public.	Private.
,	1861-62 1867-68 1871-72 1887-88	1,008,674 1,484,582 1,722,947 2,307,982	885,152 1,850,066 1,545,790 2,125,207	128,522 134,466 177,157 182,775

In 26 years, therefore, the number of pupils in daily ele-

mentary schools, both public and private, has more than doubled, rising from 1,000,000 to 2,300,000. Taking into consideration the increase in the population of all ages and sexes there is a clear gain of 80 per cent.

Putting aside children up to six years of age we shall see how the proportion of illiterates to the number of males and females of six years and upwards, and of 20 years and upwards, has diminished in the periods of the three last censuses:—

Census.	6 Years ar	nd Upwards.	20 Years and Upwards.		
Census.	Malez.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1861	68.09	81.27	65:47	81.52	
1871	01.00	75.78	60.17	77.18	
1881	54.56	69.32	53·89	72.98	

There has been further a steady diminution in the number of illiterate brides and bridegrooms, and of recruits for the army and navy:—

Yea	•	Bridegrooms.	Brides.	Cons	eripts.
100	••	Diaugioums	Diluca	Army.	Navy
1860	•••	59.96	78.97	64.01	
1871	••	57.78	76.78	56.74	68.52
1887	••	42.83	62.82	44.98	51.72
1888	••	42-27	61.90	42.98	51.46

The least illiterate provinces, as regards bridegrooms and brides, are those of Turin, Sondrio, and Novara; and the most illiterate are the three provinces of Calabria, viz., Catanzaro,

Reggio, and Cosenza.

Illiteracy has been reduced among the recruits from 64 per cent. in 1866, i.e., of those born in 1846, to 43 per cent. in the space of 22 years. Italy is, however, still a long way from the standard of the German Empire, where the proportion of illiterate recruits is 1.27 per cent.; from that of Switzerland, with 1.3 per cent.; to say nothing of Belgium, with only 14 per cent.; and France with 10 per cent. of soldiers unable to read or write.

In Italy during the scholastic year 1887-88 there were 2,125,207 scholars of both sexes in elementary public schools; in France during the same year, 4,425,867; in Prussia (1886), 4,973,184; and in England and Wales (1889), 4,755,835. The number of scholars in Italy in proportion to the population, without distinction of sex, is 7 per cent.; in France, 12 per cent.; in Prussia, 18; and in England and Wales, 16 per cent. The increase in the number of pupils attending public elementary schools has

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been, in Italy from 1871-72 to 1887-88, 1.2 per cent. per year. The cost of each scholar in the public elementary schools is, in

Italy, 26 fr.; in France, 39 fr.; and in Prussia, 32 fr.

Secondary instruction has been given to a steadily increasing number of pupils; larger, indeed, relatively, than the increase of the population. The bulk of the increase has taken the direction of technical teaching, without, however, affecting the numbers attending classes at the various lycées and gymnasia.

Secondary instruction, cla-sical and technical.

Advanced instruction.

PUPILS attending Classes of Secondary Instruction.

		Clas	sical.		Technical.					
Scholastic. Year.	Schools.		Academies.		Technical Schools.		Technical Institutes.		Institutes of Mercantile Marine.	
	Govern- ment.	Others.	Govern- ment.	Others.	Govern- ment.	Others.	Govern- ment.	Others.	Govern- ment.	Others.
1961-62 1967-68 1871-72 1881-82 1887-68	9,107	29,026 31,836	8,006 8,641 8,773 6,628 7,618	5,767 6,070	2,200 5,993 6,189 7,510 14,903	17,828 14,712	1,2 4,1 4,6 5,556 4,998	90	26 60 71 758 720	0

The annual expenditure for secondary education in Italy, divided between the State, the Provinces, and the Communes,

amounts to a little under 1,000,000l.

The number of students at the universities varied but little up to the close of 1880, since then they have considerably increased, whilst a fair number have withdrawn themselves to seek instruction in other new institutions for the higher and special branches There are 17 Government universities, inclusive of the university for jurisprudence at Macerata, and four free universities, viz., at Ferrara, Perugia, Camerino, and Urbino, the former of which are supported by the State at an annual expense of about 350,000l. Besides the universities there are institutes for engineers at Rome, Turin, Bologna, Naples, the upper technical institute at Milan, and the scientific and literary institute in the same city, the institute for final practical studies at Florence, the normal high school at Pisa, and the three veterinary colleges at Turin, Milan, and Naples. There are besides special superior schools of social science at Florence, superior commercial schools at Venice, Genoa, and Bari, the upper naval academy at Genoa, schools of agriculture at Milan and Portici, the Industrial Museum at Turin, the forest school at Vallombrosa, and high schools for women at Florence and Rome.

The number of attendants at these various establishments is as follows :-



STUDENTS and Class Attendants of the Institutions for Advanced Education.

Scholastic Year.	Government and Free Universities.	Superior Institutions.	Special Superior Schools
1866-67	10,881	682	•••
1871-72	11,997	1,181	••
1880-81	11,442	1,235	• •
1881-82	12,225	1,875	897
1885-86	14,867	1,858	515
1887-88	16,074	1,959	798

The more serious forms of crime, such as murder, man-Criminal slaughter, and robberies with violence complicated by homicide, statistics show a decided tendency to decrease, although these acts of brute violence are still far more common in Italy than in most

European countries.

The annexed table (I.) gives the numbers of criminals tried for offences against the person of all kinds, and against property, during the years 1879-88. Among offences against property we have included, besides thefts and robbery with violence without homicide, all forgeries (coiners, an'l forgers of public and private documents) and fraudulent bankrupts, which may be fairly included in the category of thefts. The diminution in highway robberies is worthy of notice, as is the steady increase in offences against the bankruptcy laws. The annexed table (II.) gives the proportion per 100,000 inhabitants tried for the various crimes in the several provinces of the kingdom.

Table I.—CRIMES.

		ITALY	•
	ommerce cy Laws).	Per 100,000 Inhabi- tants.	11.00 11.00
	Against Commerce (Bankruptcy Laws).	Total Number.	376 480 481 461 461 461 671 671 680 888 1,068 1,861
	Fraud.	Per 100,000 Inhabi- tanta.	
	F	Total Number.	1,161 1,161 1,168 1,208 1,208 1,145 1,452 1,429 1,429
	hefts in Districts.	Per 100,000 Inbabi- tants.	 91-51 82-97 116-08 77-08 88-29 90-12
	Petty Theffs in Country Districts.	Total Number.	28,5547 28,5647 28,5648 28,5668 28,5668 28,5860 28,5860 28,5860 28,5860
Against Property.	le and d Theft.	Per 100,000 Inhabi- tante.	68.96 68.96 68.96 67.12 64.43
Against )	Simple and Qualified Theft.	Total Number.	   19,376 20,479 21,286 19,523 20,610
	Highway Robbery without Murder.	Per 100,000 Inhabi- tanta.	2 4 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
	Highway without	Total Number.	1,041 1,712 961 705 735 663 631 631 631 638 638 638 638 638 638 638 638 638 638
	Cutting and Wounding.	Per 100,000 Inhabi- tants.	206 :89 211 :06 221 :94 221 :94
Against the Person.	Cuttir	Total Number.	61,444 65,367 68,449 68,449 68,449
Against t	Qualified ple, and Robbery micide.	Per 100,000 Inhabi- tants.	11.57 11.30 9.99 9.99 9.50 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.9
	Homicide, Qualified and Simple, and Highway Robbery with Homicide.	Total Number.	2,29 2,326 2,326 2,267 2,267 2,274 2,74 2,74 2,74 2,74 2,74
	Against Morality, &c.	Per 100,000 Inhabi- tanta.	6 - 31 6 - 31 6 - 31 6 - 31
	Against	Total Number.	1,912 1,930 1,930 1,930 1,930 1,930 1,930 1,930
	£.		
	Year.		1879 1880 1883 1883 1883 1884 1886 1889 1889

TABLE II.

Province.	Total of crimes denounced.	Ordinary or quali- fied murder, and rob- bery with murder.	Cutting and wounding.	Crimes against morality, &c.	Crimes against public faith.	Extortion, high- way robbers, &c.	Theft, simple and qualified.
Piedmont Liguria Liguria Lombardy Venetia Tuscany Kamilia Marches and Umbria Campania, Mclise, and Basilicata Apuszo Apalia Calabria Sicily Sardinia Average for kingdom	749 · 34 774 · 26 1,797 · 40 1,252 · 59 1,108 · 57 822 · 71	7·80 9·47 8·75 5·48 10·47 7·45 13·37 27·01 29·45 22·71 16·24 32·85 32·62 27·62 21·61	74-27 122-00 79-63 64-16 68-51 71-38 166-12 403-60 338-05 329-93 194-49 375-61 227-98 119-43 171-00	9 98 16 22 11 39 11 14 15 30 9 20 11 88 24 43 21 04 21 27 17 04 36 91 22 64 21 37 16 09	49·62 63·94 41·48 54·15 49·91 62·18 60·10 63·60 48·45 58·65 39·35 31·99 41·45 70·77 50·20	7 · 96 5 · 80 4 · 94 3 · 57 7 · 23 9 · 22 4 · 14 18 · 15 13 · 19 4 · 21 5 · 32 8 · 77 19 · 10 15 · 04 9 · 03	163 · 45 216 · 65 206 · 17 312 · 70 180 · 58 250 · 74 179 · 09 197 · 46 223 · 97 203 · 05 185 · 75 244 · 84 439 · 99 224 · 94

The province of Latium, the southern provinces, and the islands, are specially prominent for cases of homicide, and cutting, and wounding. Offences against morality are more frequent in the southern than in the central and northern provinces; they reach the maximum in Calabria, and the minimum is found in Emilia and Piedmont.

The southern provinces do not, however, compare unfavourably with the others in offences against property. The bulk of thefts are found in Latium and in Sardinia, and they are relatively numerous in the Venetian provinces, where, however, they consist principally of petty rural thefts and larcenies. Offences against public faith and breaches of trust are most common in Sardinia, but are very prevalent in Liguria, Emilia, and Latium, whilst they are rare in Calabria and Apulia. This last district, it may be noticed, compares favourably with other southern provinces in most species of crime.

With regard to other European countries Italy stands highest Homicide. in the list of homicides, with a proportion of 8.05 convictions in every 100,000 inhabitants; Austria has 2.15 in every 100,000;

Germany, 0.80; England, 0.40; and Scotland, 0.56.

Turning to other forms of sanguinary assaults, Italy shows in Cutting and 1889 226.06 convictions for every 100,000 inhabitants, exceeding wounding. considerably the ratio in France, which is 71.62 per 100,000 inhabitants, and also that of Germany, which is 154.70 per 100,000. On the other hand Austria has a ratio of 285.19 per 100,000 inhabitants for the same crime, being ahead even of Italy.

With regard to robberies, eliminating petty country and Thefts of all forest robberies, Italy, with a ratio of 78'17 convictions per natures except 100,000 inhabitants, contrasts favourably with France, which rural thefts. shows 114'79 convictions in every 100,000 inhabitants, with Germany, which has 177'36, and with England, with a proportion of 180'97 in every 100,000 inhabitants.

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It is, however, very doubtful whether robberies are less common in Italy than in England, France, and Germany, as these figures appear to show. It is often the custom in Italy not to invoke the intervention of justice in cases of petty or domestic thefts, so the greater apparent frequency of this crime in Germany and England is probably due to a more exact notion of the difference between meum and tuum, and the habit of handing over the offender to be dealt with by law; in many instances, either to avoid the nuisance of a trial, or the revenge of the accused individual, or from a motive of consanguinity, such cases in this country would never come before the public.

Prisons.

In connection with criminal statistics, one may here refer to prison statistics. The number of prisoners detained in the various gaols diminished from 80,000 at the end of 1880 to 68,000 in 1888. The subjoined table shows the figures in detail:—

PRISONESS.

Year.	Total.	Judicial Prisons.	Galleys.	Penal Servitude.	Houses of Correction for Minors.	In Penal Colonies.
1880 1881 1892 1883 1884 1885 1886 1887	80,149 78,575 77,840 74,609 73,098 70,869 68,838 66,658 67,772	- 41,133 39,498 37,605 33,984 31,834 30,123 20,797 27,196 28,661	17,716 17,729 17,715 17,842 17,217 16,672 16,215 15,709 15,386	13,689 14,292 14,828 15,896 16,440 15,858 15,856 15,847 15,854	5,582 5,890 5,741 5,780 5,688 5,521 5,477 5,611 5,651	2,029 1,671 1,456 1,607 1,914 2,200 2,493 2,795 2,720

The diminution shown in the number of prisoners detained in the judicial prisons has been due to the accelerated action of justice, and the increase of the practice of giving bail. In these prisons both accused persons and a certain number of convicted criminals are detained, and the numbers in both categories show a decrease in the last few years, as is shown below:—

PRISONERS DETAINED IN GAOL.

Yea	r.	For Trial.	Convicted.
1880 .		19,427	20,363
1881 .		17,722	20,161
1882 .		16,884	19,046
1888 .		15,579	17,167
1884 .		15,756	15,028
1885 .		14,265	14,768
1886 .		13,082	14,729
1887 .	- 1	12,803	14,260
1888 .		13,288	15,288

Agriculture

The information given under this head is derived from the Central Departments of Agriculture, who, by dint of corres-

pondence with agricultural committees of all kinds, and numerous emissaries throughout the country, endeavour to keep themselves informed of the progress of agriculture in the various parts of Italy, so much as is possible in the absence of a general geometrical survey of the whole country, giving accounts of the distribution of culture to the various provinces.

The following table shows the produce of the six great crops of Italy during the past three years (the amount of oil pro-

duced in 1890 is not yet verified):—

#### AVERAGE CROP.

Arti	cles.	1860-62.	1870-74.	1879-83.
Wheat Maize Other ceres Rice	ls	 Hectolitres. 85,820,000 16,960,000 17,150,000 1,488,000	Hectolitres. 50,898,000 81,174,000 18,155,000 9,798,000	Hectolitres. 46,655,000 29,661,000 12,172,000 7,381,000
	•	71,808,000	105,025,000	95,869,000
Oil Wine	••	1,565,000 24,003,000	8,328,000 27,589,000	3,436,000 86,594,000

#### ANNUAL PRODUCE.

Articles.		Articles. 1888.		1889.	1890.
Wheat Maize Other cereals Rice	••	•••	Hectolitres. 88,873,000 25,606,000 9,356,000 5,155,000	Hectolitres.  88,464,000 28,918,000 10,515,000 8,428,000	Hectolitres. 47,208,000 28,148,000 18,908,000 7,940,000
		-	78,990,000	86,325,000	97,199,000
Oil Wine	••		3,024,000 32,846,000	1,559,000 21,757,000	86,760,000

N.B.—One hectolitre is equal to 22 imperial gallons and to 24 imperial bushels.

These figures represent, as accurately as can be ascertained, the vicissitudes of agriculture in Italy during the last 30 years.

The average annual produce of wheat in the two periods of 1860-62 and 1870-74 does not show much difference, as in the first period the growth in the provinces of Rome and Venetia were not included. What increase there was may be attributed to greater attention paid to its cultivation, on account of increased profits being realised by the proprietors. In the period 1879-83 statistics show a decrease of about 8 per cent., and it will be recollected that at this period internal traffic in wheat began to show symptoms of languor, occasioned by the active competition of foreign grain which, in turn, led to a diminution in the wheat-growing area. The good harvest of 1890 exceeded the average crop of the period 1879-83.

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The fluctuations in the remaining crops call for no special remark, and, in the case of the olive, were occasioned by a more or

less good harvest.

The produce of vines, if one compares the average produce in the periods 1870-74 and 1879-83, has increased by one-third, viz., from 27,000,000 hectolitres in the former to 36,500,000 in the latter period. In Lombardy, the soil being better fitted for breeding stock, there has been a certain diminution in the wine-growing area, and consequently of produce, and a still greater one in the Venetian province, owing to the severe frosts of 1879-80; but a slight increase has occurred in Emilia, the Marches, and Tuscany, a notable increase in Piedmont (especially in the district of Alessandria), and in the district of Naples, and a still larger increase in Sicily (from 4,246,000 hectolitres in 1870-74 to 7,702,000 in 1879-83), attributable to the greater care recently taken in the culture of the vines. The grape harvest in 1889 was a deficient one, while that of 1890 was very much better.

The cultivation of oranges and lemons has spread, not only in increased average, but in the number of plants per hectare, and in the average number of fruits per tree, so much that it is calculated that in 1883 there were gathered 1,060,000,000 of fruit more than in 1874. The incentive of high export prices had caused this branch of cultivation to spread in Sicily and Calabria; but prices have fallen of late years, and much of the recently-planted orange and lemon groves is now being planted

with vines.

The produce of cocoons in 1880 was 41,500,000 kilos.; in 1888, 44,000,000 kilos. The produce in 1889 was only 34,000,000 kilos., and was but just superior to the poor yields of 1882 and 1885.

Live stock.

Below is a comparison of the census of animals made in 1862 with that made in 1881:—

			1862.	1834.
Equine animals Cattle Sheep Goats Pigs	••	••	1,891,626 8,708,635 8,806,514 2,233,825 8,886,731	1,625,658 4,783,232 8,596,108 2,016,307 1,163,916

Equine animals, of which the last census was taken in 1876, are consequently on the increase. They are subdivided as follows:—Horses, 657,544 (comprising 31,587 belonging to the Royal Household and officers of the army); mules, 293,868; donkeys, 674,246. Cattle have not only increased in number but in quality, great attention having been given to the breeds during late years in Venice, in Emilia, and in the Romagna. The apparent diminution in pigs is accounted for by the different time of year at which the two censuses were taken, and is believed to be more apparent than real.

The following estimation of the annual value of agricultural value of agriand forest produce was made in 1888. The figures are given in cultural and forest produce.

1. Cercals, vegetable growths, cane, wood, potatoes, chestnuts, wine, olive-oil, oranges and lemons, tobacco cocoons, 3,400,000,000 fr. (136,000,000*l*.).

The average value from 1879-83 of purely agricultural produce, to which was added chestnuts, cocoons, and oranges and lemons, was as under:—

				- 1	Currency.	Sterling.
					Francs.	£
Wheat		• •			803,000,000	82,120,000
Maize			••		384,000,000	15,360,000
Dats		••	••		47,000,000	1,880,000
Barley	••	•••			47,000,000	1,880,000
Rye	••	•••	••		22,000,000	880,000
Rice	••	•••	••		134,000,000	5,860,000
Vegetables	••	••	••		98,000,000	8,920,000
Hemp	••	••	•••		72,000,000	2,880,000
Plax	••	•••	•••		20,000,000	800,000
Potatoes	••	•••			40,000,000	1,600,000
Chestnuts	••	•••	•••		82,000,000	8,280,000
Wine		•••	::		1,066,000,000	42,640,000
Dil	::	•••	•••		335,000,000	13,400,000
l'obacco	••	•••	•••		4,000,000	160,000
Cocoons	••	•••	••		151,000,000	6,040,000
Oranges and					75,000,000	8,000,000
aren Pop and		7110	••	••	, 0,000,000	3,000,000
Total					3,280,000,000	181,200,000

2. Animals, forage, meat, bones, wool, milk, hides, &c., 1,180,000,000 fr. (47,200,000l.).

3. Woods and forests, 90,000,000 fr. (3,600,000l.).

It is not easy to arrive at the exact value of the herds and flocks, owing to the various systems of treatment they receive in the different provinces of Italy, affecting consequently the value of their products. The above enumeration was arrived at as under:—

			i	Currency.	Sterling.
			-	Francs.	£
Flesh		••		569,705,000	28,788,200
Bones		••	••	7,500,000	800,000
Wool			••	85,000,000	1,400,000
Milk				<b>19</b> 8,785.000	7,949,400
Hides for tani	aing	• •	•••	46,800,000	1,872,000
Labour of hor	ses and ox	en	••	821,170,000	12,846,800
Total .		••	-	1,178,910,000	47,156,400

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The value of woods and forests is calculated as below:

			Currency.	Sterling.
			Francs.	£
Timber for manufacturing purposes Firewood	Cubic metres	1,874,000 6,289,000 8,019,000	17,062,000 20,682,000 18,183,000	682,480 825,280 725,320
clusive of chestnuts	Quintals	15,527,000	82,174,000	1,236 900
Total		••	88,001,000	3,520,940

The following should be added to the abovementioned produce—fruit, garden produce, poultry, eggs, flowers, straw for hats, bristles, manna, liquorice, oleaginous seeds, fungi, truffles, dye stuffs, sugar, &c., but it is difficult to approximate to their monetary value.

The export of the above accessory products of agricultural economy amounts yearly to about 80,000,000 fr. (3,200,000*l*.). What is the home consumption? What the actual production?

The export represents but the best of the fruit and garden produce, as an enormous quantity is consumed by the population, who live almost exclusively on fruit, figs, vegetables, green stuffs, and, in a certain proportion, on poultry and eggs. Not that this large quantity brings any considerable addition to the proprietor's pocket, either because of the poor quality of the fruit and garden produce in question, or that they are grown too far from a market, or, again, because a considerable portion of vegetables and greens already enter into the gross returns of the farm as forage, having helped to fatten both cattle and pigs. It may safely be assumed that the money value of this class of produce not directly consumed by the peasants and animals, but sold within the country, is at least three times that of the value exported. If this hypothesis is correct, the gross total value annually of agricultural produce, including the accessory products abovementioned, would be about 5,000,000,000 fr. (200,000,000*l*.).

Uncultivated land.

Exclusive of the bare mountain rocks, of roads and waterways, of the beds of rivers and torrents, and, in general, of such portions of the area of the kingdom as are entirely unsusceptible of any cultivation; and putting aside those lands which, being exclusively devoted to summer pasturage for cattle and sheep, could not be tilled to advantage, whether on account of their being situate on the highest mountain slopes or from other causes, there are 2,000,000 hectares remaining in various parts of Italy. In this number are included lands, at present but slightly and intermittently cultivated, that might be made, by the expenditure of capital and large works of irrigation, more productive than they are at present.

Ex-feudal territory. The feudal tenure formerly existing in the southern provinces of Italy was abolished by law in 1806, and it was determined

that the lands then assigned to the various communes should be, little by little, distributed among the indigent poor. From 1806-60 administrative action in this direction was very slow, only 60,000 hectares being in that time divided among 39,000 individuals. Between 1860 and 1889 379,000 hectares have been divided among 368,000 agriculturists. The tenure is by perpetual leases redeemable. "Enfiteusis" is a lease of poor land on condition that it is planted, manured, and enriched, and this is the system under which these lands are divided. 414,000 hectares have been reserved for municipal use, and they remain under the control of the Communes.

The superficial area in Italy under irrigation is 1,670,000 Irrication. hectares. The Minister for Agriculture is causing to be compiled a hydrographic map on a large scale of all the provinces. That portion of it relating to Emilia and the southern Mediterranean district has already been published. It has been calculated, from the surveys of the remaining provinces, that the area which can still be irrigated, either by means of permanent water of rivers and springs, or by artificial reservoirs, amounts to 1,400,000 hectares; specially taking into account the resources of the projected Emiliano Canal, which is capable alone of irrigating 400,000 hectares.

It is estimated that to complete this latter work 800,000,000 fr.

(32,000,000*l*.) will be required.

in use.

These statistics are of all the most difficult to obtain, as in Industrial order to obtain information as to the details of the various statistics industrial establishments, motive-power, number of workmen employed, &c., it is necessary to appeal to the voluntary and gratuitous assistance of the manufacturers.

It is, at all events, possible to note the progress in the con-Combustibles. sumption of combustibles, and the increase in the amount of motive power employed, both steam and hydraulic, without including for the present the very small amount of gas-motors now

	Year.	-		Production of Lignite in Italy.	Import of Foreign Coal.
				Tons.	Tons.
1871 .		••	• •	80,886	791,389
1876 .				116,399	1,454,223
1881 .	,		• •	134,582	2,073,315
1886 .			••	243,325	2,927,092
1887 .			• •	827,665	8,588,143
1888 .				366,794	3,872,905
				·	

To these figures should be added the production of turf (peat), Peat and fuel. amounting in 1888 to 30,000,000 tous, as well as patent fuel, to the amount of 490,000 tons annually. This latter is composed of nine-tenths of dust and refuse coal, worked up into fuel, and must be regarded practically as a new combustible. As the export of fuel from Italy is inconsiderable, consisting of a small quantity of turf which goes from Lombardy to Switzerland, the

consumption of carboniferous fuel in Italy in 1888 amounted to 5,000,000 tons, against scarcely 1,000,000 tons in 1871.

The consumption of this fuel in 1889 represented a money value of over 126,000,000 fr. (5,040,000*l*.), the details of which are given below:—

	Quantity.	Currency.	Sterling.
ľ	Tons.	Francs.	£
Lignite	890,320	2.858.154	115,236
Turf	30,095	444,531	17,781
Patent fuel	506,700	15,843,400	618,736
import of coal, &c	<b>8,</b> 989,757	107,728,439	4,308,937
Total	4,916,872	126,369,524	5,055,780

The amount of carboniferous fuel consumed in various industrial establishments was distributed during the year 1889 as follows:—

	Tons.	Per cent
Fixed steam engines and locomotives used for		
industries and agriculture	1,300,000	26.44
Furnaces for lime, bricks, glass, and foundries	1,300,000	26.44
Railway and tramway locomotives	750,000	15-25
Gas and electric illumination	850,000	17-29
Navigation societies	818,565	6.38
Domestic and various consumption	830,807	6.71
Government ships	88,000	0.77
Establishments dependent on the Ministry of War	17,000	0.85
Establishments dependent on the Ministry of	,	į.
Marine	18,000	0.37
· Total	4,916,872	100.00

The annual consumption of coal on the railways amounted to 666,000 tons, and on the steam tramways to 84,000 tons approximately. The amount credited to the navigation societies (313,565 tons) represents only the quantity in store in Italy. In order to ascertain the amount purchased abroad and consumed by their vessels during their voyages, one must add 209,626 tons yearly, viz., 135,500 tons for the General Italian Navigation Society, 45,532 tons for the Veloce Society, and 28,594 tons for the Lavarello Society.

The amount purchased abroad and consumed during their voyages by the ships of the Italian Navy averaged (from 1887-89) 32,000 tons yearly.

The establishments dependent on the Ministry for War are:—

	Tons.
The Royal foundries, military arsenals, and artillery establishments at Turin, Venice, Alessandria, Genoa, Piacenza, Bologna, Ancona,	
Florence, Rome, Naples, and Messina	12,000
Royal manufactory of arms at Torre dell' Annunziata, Brescia, and Terni	3,000
Powder factories at Sarigliano, and Scafati, pyrotechnic establishments at Turin and Bologna, laboratory at Turin, constructive works of	
engineers at Alescandria and Pasia, &c	2,000
Total	17,000

And those dependent on the Ministry of Marine are the

arsenals at Castellamare, Naples, Venice, and Spezia.

The fixed engines and locomotives for industry and agriculture, which consume 1,300,000 tons of coal annually, represent 162,500 power. horse-power, supposing them to work 10 hours a day for 320 days in the year, and that they consume 2.5 kilos. of coal per hour and horse-power. It must be borne in mind that this consumption of coal per hour and horse-power is calculated on locomotives of old pattern, as most of those in Italy are. The establishments dependent upon the Ministries of War and Marine employ another 5,500 horse-power, which brings the total horse-power of all fixed engines in the country up to 167,000, whereas in 1878 it was only 54,000.

The Statistical Society give the number of steam-boilers at 10,000, with a horse-power of 157,000. Industrial energy was large in 1889 as compared with the few years immediately preceding, the import of foreign coal having increased by 126,000

tons.

To the fixed engines above quoted must be added locomotives and mercantile steam-vessels, which together form the following total:—

Fixed engines (1889)	••	••	••	••	Horse-power, 167,000
Locomotives		• •		• •	400,000
Mercantile steam-vessels	• •	• •		••	189,502
Total					756,502

The returns from France and Belgium for the same years are as under:-

		FRANC	E.			
Fixed engines .		••	••	••	••	Horeo-power. 793,514
Locomotives (1888	3)	• •	• •	••		3 451,623
Mercantile steam-	Yeseels	••	••	••	••	564,051
		Brigiu	M			
						Horse-power.
Fixed engines (18	89)	• •	••	• •		367,868
Loccmotives		• •	••	••		464,423
Mercantile navy.		••	••	••	••	21 106

The total horse-power of the Royal Italian Navy, as compared with that of the two countries above-mentioned, may be here

worthy of notice, although certainly not destined for productive purposes.

	C	ountry		1888.	1889.		
·	Italy France Belgium	••	••	••	Horse-power. 285,211 467,707 6,227	Horse-power. 813,989 539,433 6,015	
						l	

If engines ordered, but not yet placed on board the ships for which they are destined, be taken into consideration, the total horse-power of the Italian Navy in 1889 amounted to 446,234.

There exist, beside industrial establishments in

employing hydraulic power, another 600,000 horse-power.

Turning to some of the more important industries, we find the mining industry increasing the value of its produce from 1870 to 1882, from which date, owing to a general diminution in price of metals, a decrease is visible. This decrease is not occasioned by the mines being less worked, as there is no proportionate decrease in the number of labourers employed.

	Year.			Year. Value of Produce.						
				Francs.	Number.					
1871	••	••		41,920,532	80,257					
1876		••	••	57,822,266	88,908					
1882	••	••		73,815,252	52,326					
1886	••	••		53,591,771	49,287					
1887	••	••	••	49,977,119	47,063					
1888	••	••	••	52,877,908	49,154					
1889	• •			53,554,255	48,981					

The total value in 1888 of the product of French mines was 252,861,542 fr. (10,114,4611.), produced by 114,501 workmen, or a yearly average of 2,208, or about 88L per head. In Belgium, the coal and metal mines produced in the same year the amount of 164,666,000 fr. (6,586,640%), with 105,159 workmen, or a yearly produce per operative of 1,565 fr. (621. 10s.). In Great Britain and Ireland coal and other mines, in 1889, produced 1,950,000,000 fr. (78,000,000l.), raised by 607,000 workmen, or a industries. - yearly average per man of 1284. In Italy, on the other hand, the amount raised by each workman in 1889 only amounted to 1,093 fr. (43*l*.).

Metallurgic

Mining industry.

> The production of pig-iron in Italy is small, and varies but little annually. In 1889 the output was 13,473 tons, which, at its present market price, is worth about 2,123,096 fr. (84,9231.).

> The manufacture of iron and steel, on the other hand, is in a flourishing condition, and the following returns, from 1881 to 1889, have been verified by the engineers of the corps of miners :-

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7	Tear.		Iron,	Steel.	Workmen.		
<del></del>			Tons.	Tons.	Number.		
1881			94,941	8,630	5,732		
18 <b>88</b>			125,482	2,965	7,103		
1885	••		140,784	6,370	8,560		
1886	• •		161,683	28,760	10,567		
1887	••		172,834	78,262	11,714		
1888	•••		177,019	117,785	12,749		
1889	••		181,628	157,899	14,518		

The production of iron and steel in 1889 represented a value of about 86,000,000 fr. (3,440,000l.). This industry has developed considerably of late years, owing to the activity of the great steel works at Terni and the increased energy shown in other establishments, such as those of Tardy-Beneck, in Savona,

now associated with the firm of Bochum, of Germany.

The value of the lead and silver extracted in Italy amounted in 1878 to about 4,000,000 fr. (160,000l.); it rose in 1885 to 9,500,000 fr. (380,000l.); to about 12,000,000 fr. (480,000l.) in 1886; and exceeded 11,000,000 fr. in 1889. In this latter year the value of pig-iron, manufactured iron and steel, lead and silver, together exceeded 100,000,000 fr. (4,000,000l.), to which may be added 15,000,000 fr. (600,000l.), representing the value of metals extracted in smaller quantities, such as gold, copper, mercury, antimony, &c. One-half of the value of the produce of iron mines is composed of sulphur.

The value of machinery manufactured in Italy was calculated industry. at 12,000,000 lire (480,000l.) in 1860, and at 40,000,000 lire (1,600,000L) in 1880, not inclusive of the annual work turned out by the establishments depending on the Ministries of War and Marine; the value of which is 30,000,000 lire (1,200,000l.). Taking into consideration the fact that, since 1880, various new establishments for the construction of machinery have been started, and many of the existing ones enlarged, it may be said, altogether, the value of machinery produced yearly in Italy is close upon 100,000,000 fr. (4,000,000*l*).

This branch of industry is susceptible of great development, partly because machinery is imported yearly of the value of tens of millions of francs (50,000,000 fr. in 1887, 40,000,000 fr. in 1883, and 43,000,000 fr. in 1889), and partly because, as the general conditions of agriculture and industry improve, the

demand for machinery will be much greater.

Quarries and

Mechanical

Progress is also evident in this category, including, as it does, kilns. the quarrying of stone and marble, and the manufacture of bricks, lime, earthenware, glass, &c., an impetus having been given to it by the rush of new building schemes in the large towns, the construction of new railways, and the improvement at the ports and embankment of rivers.

In 1880 the amount produced was of the value of 85,000,000 fr. (3,400,000l.), and it may now fairly be set at 100,000,000 lire 24 ITALY.

(4,000,000l.), one-fifth of which is contributed by the marbles from the Apuan Alps.

Marine salt and chemical products. Summary.

This branch of industry must not be omitted, producing, as it does, goods of the value of 44,000,000 fr. (1,800,000l.) annually, of which 41,000,000 fr. were for chemical products.

The produce, then, of mining, metallurgic, mechanical, and chemical industries may be summed up in annual value as

follows:-

1. Mining—2,095,116l., one-half produced from sulphur.

2. Metallurgic - 3,760,000l.

3. Mechanical—4,000,000l., two-thirds produced in private establishments, and one-third in Government establishments.

4. Quarries and Kilns—another 4,000,0001, one-fifth of which

is the product of the Apuan marbles.

5. Marine Salt and Chemical Products -1,800,000/.

The number of workmen employed in these various industries

Coral fisheries. is about 200,000.

Passing to other branches of industry, one must note a great fall in the value of the produce of the coral fisheries in Sicilian and Sardinian waters, as, in the last few years, it has scarcely reached 60,000l. annually, whereas in 1880 it exceeded 880,000l. Even setting aside this exceptional year, the yield, in 1875, exceeded 360,000*l.*; in 1876, 1879 and 1881 320,000*l.*; and in 1882 The finest quality of coral, of that extra delicate shade 160**,**000*l*. so prized by jewellers and connoisseurs, is worth over 100l. per ounce in the market.

Whilst Italy holds a commanding place in Europe for the production of cocoons and raw silk, the same cannot be said of its

position as a manufacturer of silk goods.

In 1888 the breeding of silkworms was carried on in 5,195 communes by 559,155 breeders, who each placed for incubation average of 2.39 ounces of seed (27 grammes to the ounce). They obtained 43,899,443 kilos. of cocoons, a figure never reached since 1875. The raw silk obtained in that year was equivalent to 3,566,000 kilos., a figure never obtained since 1862. The export of silk goods from Italy exceeded the import by 93,200,000% in 1888, and by 96,000,000l. in 1889. The persons employed in the silk factories number 150,000, nine-tenths of whom are women and girls.

Next in importance, but at a long distance, comes the cotton industry, which has decidedly improved since 1870, especially as regards spinning. The spindles for spinning cotton have increased from 500,000 in 1870 to 1,800,000 at the present day. This industry is more especially developed in Northern Italy, and

occupies throughout the country about 70,000 persons.

The spindles in the woollen industry do not exceed 300,000; but the number of looms is relatively large, as they number about 10,000, of which three-tenths are mechanical and seven-tenths hand-looms. This industry is principally carried on in Vicentine, in the Biella district, and in the Terra del Lavoro. The operatives number about 30,000.

Flax, hemp, jute, &c.

The remaining textile industries are of minor importance, such

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Cotton.

Silk.

Wool.

25

This latter industry, however, shows a as flax, hemp, and jute. certain increase, concentrated in a few very large fabrics. raw material comes from abroad.

Some 20,000 operatives are engaged in the manufacture of

paper, and some 10,000 more in tan-yards.

Particulars respecting the wages of operatives have been Wages of carefully collected from a large number of industrial establish- operatives in ments in all parts of Italy ever since 1862. The following branches of specimens of wages in various establishments may be taken as a industry. fair sample of wages given for one effective day's work from 1862 to 1889 :—

					18	362.	18	67.	18	71.	18	81.	19	88.	18	89.
Cotton factory,	provi	ace of M	Iilan —	!	Fr.	с.	Fr.	c.	Fr.	с.	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.	Fr.	
Spinners	•••		•••		1	10	1	40	. 1	60	1	70	1	91	1	91
Weavers			•••	•••	1	35	1	70	1	85	١.	•••	; 1	6-6	1	65
Wool factory at	Vices	128-		- 1			1		ł		i		i		1	
Spinners			***				2	75	8	52	4	62	5	50	5	50
Weavers			***			•••	2	31	2	42	3	96	8	96	3	96
Wool factory at			•••	•••			-		1		-				1	•
Spinners				•••	2	86	3	19	3	45	3	77	4	0	1 4	25
Carders	•	-	***	•••		50	l i	50	Ĭ	50	2	iò	2	40	1 2	50
ilk factory, Cu			•••	•••	•	-	1 -	••	1 -	••	1 -		! -		-	•
Female spinn			•••	•••	1	04	1 1	04	1 2	04	1	12	1 1	20	1	20
A-1-A					ō	83	l ō	92	ò	98	l i	08	î	80	l î	30
Paper factory,			•••	••••	•	-	1		1	••	٠.	•••		-	١ ٠	•
Rag sorters				- :	0	99	1	10	1 1	21	1	65	2	28	2	28
Paper maker				••••	ĭ	10	i	21	l î	32	l i	76	2	56	2	56
				•••		10	1 *	21	j *	02	j -	10	_	90	1 -	00
Stearine candle	IMCIO.			ı	2	10	١.,	00	1	80	3	00	3	^^	3	
Workmen				•••1		16		80	ò	78	li	80	î	00		25
Workwomen				••••	0	72	1 0	78	1 0	18	1 -	w	1 4	00	1 1	00
Sulphur mines		romag	TIE-	i	_		١.						١ ـ		١.	
Quarriers			•••	•••	3	89	2	44	2	89	2	64	2	01	2	04
Sulphur mines					_		1 _		١.		١		1 _		Ι.	
Miners on the			***	•••	2	83	2	88	3	50	4	00	2	35	2	35
Sardinian mine		iners—		- 1	_		1 .		١ ـ		1 -				١.	
Sardinians			• • • • •	•••	1	80	2	50	2	50	3	00	2	40	2	40
Others		•• •••	•••	•••	2	25	8	00	3	50	4	50	3	80	1 8	80

It will be seen from the above that the average daily pay of the operative in industrial establishments in Italy revolves around the sum of 2 fr., or 1s. 8d.; but taking piece-work into account, and occasional overtime, the wages range rather higher than the above, especially in the mechanical departments. A considerable rise will be seen in wages between 1862 and 1889, not, however, The pay, for instance, of female without some exceptions. operatives in silk factories has remained nearly stationary in consequence of the crisis through which this branch of industry has been passing; and the pay of labourers in the sulphur mines of the Romagna has decreased with the diminished commercial value of sulphur. Wages are undoubtedly higher in general than they were 20 or 25 years ago; and, as the price of the principal articles of food has diminished, the real as well as the nominal condition of the labourer has been ameliorated.

A calculation has been made which proves this amelioration very clearly. Taking a large number of workmen from some 50 of the large factories of various branches of industry—taking account, on the one hand, of the fluctuations of daily pay, and, on the other, the decrease in the price of corn—it has been ascertained how many hours one of these labourers must work in order to gain the equivalent in wages to 100 kilos. of corn The following is the result:—

Year.							Hours,
1862	••	• •	••	••	••	••	195
1867	••	• •	• •	••	••	••	203
1871	••	••	• •	••	••	••	188
1881		••	••				122
1889	• •	••	• •	••		• •	95

It would have been more interesting and conclusive if the above calculation could have been made with regard to the price of bread instead of that of wheat, as it is well known that bakers do not reduce the price of bread in proportion to the fall in the price of flour. But statistics on this subject unfortunately only date from 1880, between which time and 1889 bread has fallen from 49.7 c. the 2 lb. loaf of the best quality to 40.6 c., whilst the second quality has fallen from 42.2 c. in 1886 to 33.5 c. per 2 lb. loaf, taking the average of numerous markets in every part of the kingdom.

The clothing used by the operatives, both male and female, has diminished about one-third in price between 1855 and 1885, but, on the other hand, rents have gone up. In 1855, at Schio, or at Biella, a family of operatives of five persons, i.e., parents and three children, could house themselves for 55 fr., or 21. 4s. 2d., a year, whereas now it would cost them very nearly 51. accommodation has, however, greatly improved. It is calculated. on the whole, that rent represents one-sixth part of the annual expenditure of the operative and his family, and that the increase in rent is more than compensated by the increase in wages and the diminution in the price of bread. In spite of these ameliorations the daily wage of the operative in Italy is less, as a rule, than that in other industrial countries, the reason for which may be found, not that capital is more scarce wherewith to carry on business in Italy than elsewhere, but in the smaller productiveness of the operatives. In Italy it takes 12 men to do the work done in England by 7 or 8, on account of the quality of the work done, and this in spite of the fact that, with the same machinery, the Italian works 12 hours to produce the same amount as is turned out in England

Wages of agricultural labourers.

in 9½ hours.

With regard to agricultural labourers, the wages of an adult may be put, except on special pressing moments of the year, at about 2 fr. a day in summer time and 1½ fr. in winter. As during certain portions of the year outdoor labour is at a standstill, the average daily pay of an adult labourer during the whole year may be put at 1 fr., or 10d.

Navigation and mercantile marine. In the year 1889 100,676 vessels entered Italian ports engaged in the coasting trade, of an aggregate tonnage of 13,712,893, and 100,394 vessels, of the aggregate tonnage of 14,086,379, left: total arrival and departure, 27,799,272 tons. In 1876, that is to say, in the first year in which a careful classification of vessels according to the trade they followed was made, the coasting trade comprised, arrivals and departures together, 17,381,056 tons;

reckoning the ship's actual tonnage, not their cargo-carrying

capacity.

The movement of international navigation (for foreign trade) in 1889 was:—arrivals, 16,114; and departures, 15,365. The tonnage of the vessels of this category arriving in Italian ports amounted to 7,193,422, and of those who left to 6,678,282. The Greek flag had the pre-eminence in sailing vessels in international navigation, according to tonnage, followed by the Austrian and the British, but with regard to steamers the English flag was far ahead of all, including the Italian.

International steam navigation showed an increase, taking arrivals and departures between 1876 and 1889, of 7,721,877 tons, whilst the tonnage of sailing vessels decreased by 1,204,483 tons.

At the close of 1889 the Italian mercantile flotilla consisted of 279 steamships, of a tonnage of 182,249, and of 6,442 sailing

vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 642,225.

In 1871 there were 121 steam-vessels, with a tonnage of 37,517, and 11,270 sailing vessels, with a tonnage of 993,912, so that in 18 years there has been an increase in the Italian mercantile navy of 158 steam vessels, and of tonnage 144,732; and a diminution in sailing vessels of 4,828, of a tonnage of 351,687. As one ton in a steam vessel is equivalent for practical use to three tons in a sailing vessel, the diminution of 351,687 in the sailing tonnage is more than compensated by the increase of 144,732 tons in steam vessels.

The fishing fleet has increased from 11,642 vessels, of 43,487

tons, in 1871, to 19,387 vessels, with 52,797 tons, in 1888.

Roadways in Italy are divided into national, provincial, oblign-Roads and tory communal roads, and non-obligatory communal and highways. by-roads, the latter being private property, and not necessarily altogether open as public thoroughfares. Although of a certain relative importance in many provinces, no accurate detailed statistics exist as to this latter class of roads.

With regard to national and provincial high roads, the following

figures were ascertained in 1886 :-

			In Use.	In Construction.	To be Made.
National roads Provincial ordinary roads Subsidiary roads	••	Kiloms	9,176 26,719 8,327	201 254 2,230	64 418 5,273

The systematic construction of the obligatory communal roads was regulated by the Law of August 30, 1868, which indicated the financial sources from which they should gradually be completed. This class of roads, when finished, is estimated to be of a length of 75,174 kiloms. When the above law was passed there existed 32,235 kiloms.; between that epoch and June 30, 1889, there were constructed 12,592 kiloms, so that there now

remain 30,347 kiloms. to construct, of which 8,049 kiloms. are already in course of construction. 316,000,000 fr. (12,640,000l.) have been spent upon these roads since the above law came into force—June 30, 1889—the cost being about 13,733 lire (549l.) per kilom., 330 fr. of which (a little over 13l.) being for surveying and preliminary expenses.

Italy has, however, only reached the half-way house in the endeavour to provide the country with good carriageable roads, and as the estimate made in 1868 for this purpose amounted to 662,000,000 lire (26,480,000*l*.), there are still 345,000,000

lire (13,800,0001.) to disburse for this object.

Railway statistics. At the close of 1861 there existed in Italy 2,561 kiloms. of railway; on December 31, 1871, there were 6,377 kiloms.; and at the end of 1889, 13,063 kiloms., besides 2,262 kiloms. of steam tramways.

The capital invested in the construction of these lines and rolling-stock, which, in 1877, amounted to 2,450,000,000 lire (98,000,000*l*.), rose at the end of 1887 to 3,040,000,000 lire

(121,600,000%).

The number of passengers carried rose from 25,530,309 in 1872 to 45,518,604 in 1887. The transport of goods, both by express and goods train, has increased in even larger proportion. The weight of goods carried rose from 5,977,874 tons in 1872 to 15,801,008 in 1887, without reckoning the transport of live animals, which rose from 1,431,933 head in 1872 to 2,388,149 in 1887. During the same period, the gross profits rose from 125,569,807 fr. (5,022,7921.) in 1872 to 236,266,276 lire (9,450,6511.) in 1887, to 243,624,362 fr. (9,744,9741.) in the financial year ending June 30, 1889, and to 248,899,742 fr. (9,955,9891.) in 1889-90, the latter increase being solely due to the opening of new branch lines. Most of these new lines, however, having been run through districts where no trade exists, and where all traffic is slight, with the idea of resuscitating commercial and industrial activity in these districts by the mere appearance of the steam engine, has led to the waste of much capital in premature speculation, which has proved hostile to the general economic condition of the country.

The gross return per kilometre, which rose from 19,140 lire (765l. 10s.) in 1872 to 21,159 lire (846l. 5s.) in 1880, to 22,073 lire (883l.) in 1883, fell in the financial year 1888-89, to 19,144 lire (765l. 15s.), and to 19,093 lire (763l. 17s.) in 1889-90.

The net returns per kilometre have slightly increased, having risen from 5,994 lire (239l. 15s.) to 6,872 lire (274l. 15s.). These returns, however, vary very much on the various lines of railway. On the Mediterranean line, for example, the net product in 1887 was 9,213 fr. (368l. 10s.) per kilometre; on the Adriatic line, 7,429 fr. (297l.); on the Sicilian railways about 1,000 fr. (40l.); and on the Sardinian lines there was a deficit. On the Sardinian railway, belonging to the Royal Company, of a length of 411 kiloms., the gross receipts, deducting taxes, for the year 1888, was 1,781,082 lire (71,243l.), whilst the Government had to pay, as guaranteeing the expenditure, 6,710,162 lire (268,406l.).

In France, in the year 1887, the railways, one with another, gave gross returns per kilometre of 33,000 fr. (1,320l.), and 16,100 fr. (6441.) of net profit per kilometre; i.e., one and a half more of gross returns and double the net profits as compared with the Italian railways.

The number of post-offices in the kingdom of Italy in 1862 Postal service. (exclusive naturally of Venice and Rome), was 2,220. At the end of 1871 they had risen to 2,666, in 1881 to 3,420, and to 4,358 in 1889; besides collection boxes to the number of about 1,000. A new and more exact system of control was instituted in 1887, and the following table shows the difference in the mode of calculation:-

		1863.	· 1871.	1882.	1886-7.	1887-8.	1988-9.
Manuscripts } Postal cards	Number	73,543,346	99,166,582	143,250,369 5,594,280 28,190,039	158,576,488 7,188,813 42,740,666	119,722,742 3,218,556 43,706,343	121,743,574 3,737,632 45,808,528
Printed matter and samples Postal packets		53,442,434	95,725,878 	160,726,706 2,609,801	186,914,109 5,035,985	160,520,104 5,325,362	171,258,628 5,578,788
Receipts Expenditure	Francs	12,504,985 19,042,005	19,358,125 18,198,213	32;660,886 27,729,462	42,164,860 35,531,982	43,988,107 86,969,921	44,072,875 <b>3</b> 9,211,548

N.B.—Postal cards were first put in circulation on January 1, 1874, and the service of Parcels Post was instituted on October 1, 1881.

The postal service, which in former years was an expense to the State, has, for some years, been remunerative; and in 1888-89 the excess of receipts over expenditure amounted to 4,861,327 lire (194,453l.). It must not be forgotten that letters, manuscripts, postal cards, and registered letters are transported gratuitously by the railway companies, and that a specially favourable tariff is accorded by them for the transport of postal parcels and printed matter.

The telegraph stations at the end of 1861, not including Telegraphs Venice and Rome, numbered 355, of which 40 were on the rail-and way. At the close of 1871 they amounted to 1,351. On June 30, telephones. 1889, there existed Government telegraph offices to the number of 2,477, besides those belonging to the railway companies, in number 1,806: total 4,283.

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The subjoined table shows the progress of telegraphy between 1861 and 1889:—

	-	_			Dec. 31, 1861.	Dec. 31, 1865.	Dec. 81, 1871.	Dec. 31, 1881.	1887-88, June 30, 1888.	1888-89, June 30, 1889.
Length covernment telegraph	and				9,818 15,858	13,578 36,100	18, <b>6</b> 01 5 <b>9,94</b> 0	26,980 89,150	33,848 118,506	25,222 126,122
						Within the year 1865.		Within the	to June 30,	Between July 1, 1888 to June 30, 1889.
Telegrams : Internal. Foreign .	••	- •••	•••	•••		1,018,782 202,647	2,284,960 298,930	5,495,387 540,672	7,217,978 727,0 <b>35</b>	7,078,000 684,050
Total .	••	•••	•••		•••	1,221,879	2,583,890	6,036,050	7,945,008	7,762,060
Receipts .	••	***	•••	France	1,729,847	3,816,787	5,215,967			14,742,228
Expenditur	•	•••	•	France	69,173 4,567,027 182,681	152,671 4,160,884 166,435	208,639 5,124,004 204,960	450,230 8,928,317 357,132	607,009 13,313,902 532,556	589,689 13,620,130 544,805

As will be seen during the financial year 1888-89 there is a surplus of receipts over expenditure of over 40,000L

The telephonic system was introduced in 1881. In 1889 53 towns were provided with it, counting 11,498 subscribers, of whom 9,382 were private individuals.

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#### ITALY.

#### ROME.

#### Mr. Dering to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Rome, April 13, 1891.

THE Returns for the Italian Postal and Telegraph Services for the year 1889-90 have just been issued, and show an increase of receipts over the previous financial year of 1,776,616 fr.

(71,0641).

The total receipts from these two services during the past year amounted to 60,442,239 fr. (2,417,689L), while the expenses connected with them only amounted to 53,495,348 fr. (2,139,813L),

leaving a surplus of about 7,000,000 fr. (280,000L).

The details of the steady increase in these branches of the public service during the last 10 years are clearly stated in a summary which has just appeared, a precis of which, in translation, by Mr. E. Grant Duff, I have the honour to enclose herewith.

I have, &c.
(Signed) HENRY NEVILL DERING.

#### Italian Posts.

The Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs has lately published the annual report on the postal services for the financial year 1889-90, and on the post-office savings banks in 1890, with an appendix respecting the second half of the same year.

Although in these documents there exists a multitude of elements which show signs of the economic and commercial development of the country, it appears to us instructive to make an abstract of the principal statistics which figure in the report.

The stamped correspondence posted in the kingdom in the offices of the colony of Eritrea and in the Italian offices abroad during the year 1889-90 numbered 348,510,472, showing an increase of 6,467,115 on the previous year. Except in the case of non-periodic prints the increase is found in all kinds of correspondence, letters, post-cards, rolls of manuscript, patterns, periodicals, and (1097)

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registered or insured articles. Non-periodic prints diminished for the reason that lists, catalogues, and other similar publications were by the new regulation allowed to pass as periodicals.

Most noticeable is the increase in the stamped insured correspondence: from 9,622, of the value of 8,385,817 lire (355,4321), in 1888-89, in the year 1889-90 they rose to 106,751, of the value of 34,381,076 lire (1,375,2431). This important result is due to the new regulation, which permits articles, which are to be sent by post, insured, to be offered closed at the post offices, thus removing the burdensome formalities which existed previously. It must not be imagined that this extraordinary increase in insured correspondence took place to the detriment of registered correspondence, because there was a marked increase in the latter, viz., 539,879 articles more on account of the charge for registering being reduced 10 c. for prints and 25 c. for letters.

On June 30, 1890, the post offices in the whole kingdom numbered 5,511, showing an increase of 195 as compared with the previous year; they were divided into 69 chief offices, 112 offices of the first class, 79 branch offices, 4,177 offices of the second class, and 1,074 collectorates of the first class. The communes furnished with one or more post offices were on the above date 4,922; in the remaining 3,334 communes the postal service was carried on by means of rural agents. The average of post offices to the population, communes, and area of the kingdom was thus represented: 1 post office per 5,164 inhabitants, 1 post office per 1½ commune, 1 post office per 53.77 square chilometres.

Twenty years ago, in 1871, the number of offices of every kind amounted only to 2,666, that is less than half of the present number. In the succeeding decade there was an annual increase on an average of 90 offices; but a vigorous impulse was given in 1883 to the development of this service, and in four years alone (to the end of the year 1886-87) 1,584 new offices were instituted.

The parcels post at present represents a considerable part of the internal commercial movement, and of trade with abroad. In the year 1889-90, with which we are occupied, 5,809,832 parcels were posted in the kingdom, giving 3,781,016 lire (151,240l.); as compared with the previous year there was an increase of 241,415 of parcels posted, and of 512,542 lire (20,5011.). Of this number 5,535,380 parcels were for the interior of the kingdom, 19,343 for the Italian possessions abroad, and 255,109 for foreign countries; this shows an increase of 230,468 for Italy, 448 for Italian possessions abroad, and 8,948 for foreign States as compared with the preceding year. In 1889-90 1,818,474 lire (72,738l.) was received by the post offices of destination for 91,615 parcels, as compared with 34,949 lire (1,397l.) for 1,507 On the other hand, the parcels which parcels in 1888-89. arrived in the whole kingdom during the year 1889-90 numbered 6,202,616, on 98,436 of which 1,989,837 lire (79,5931) was charged; as compared with the preceding year there was an increase of 272,897 parcels, and those bearing charges increased BOME. 3

by 90,614, giving 1,783,918 lire (71,356*l*.). There was, then, in 1889-90 a remarkable increase in all kinds of postal parcels, and especially in those bearing charges, and of which the value was declared, owing to the extension of this service to parcels for the interior of the kingdom, and to those Italian offices situated outside the kingdom.

It is interesting to observe the proportion of postal parcels in the principal provinces of the kingdom. A greater number of

parcels were sent from-

						Number.
Milano	• •	••	• •	••	••	1,086,268
Naples	• •	• •	••	• •	••	497,558
Turin	••	••	• :	••	••	403,697
Rome	••		• •	• •	••	884,175
Florence	• •	••	• •	••	••	302,621
Genoa	••	••	••	••	••	206,052
Palermo	••	• •	••	• •	••	177,174
Bologna	••	• •	••	• •	• •	183,184
Novara	• •	••	• •	••	• •	113,806
Bari	••	••	••	•	• •	92,675

#### The provinces which received the most were-

	•					Number.
Rome		••	••	••	••	469,584
Naples	••	• •	••	••	••	454,587
Milan	• •	• •	••	• •	••	356,267
Genoa	• •	• •	••	• •	• •	286,130
Turin	••	• •	••	• •	••	<b>272,4</b> 63
Florence	••	• •	••	••	• •	229,838
Palermo	• •	••	• •	••	• •	208,601
Bari	• •	••	• •	• •	••	127,879
Cagliari	• •	• •	••	• •	••	126,955
Perugia	• •	• •	• •	••	••	124,822
Messina	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	122,340
Novara	••	• •	••	••	••	117,611
Venezia.	• •	••	• •	••	••	112,244
Sassari	••	••	••	••	• •	109,989
Catania Caserta	••	••	••	••	••	108,121
	••	••	• •	••	••	107,682
Bologna Lecce	••	••	••	• •	• •	103,681
TIPCCQ		• •	••	• •	• •	102,150

With regard to the international service of postal parcels, it is to be observed that the importation amounted to 610,297 forwarded by the frontier offices, showing a diminution of 18,544 as compared with the preceding year; the exportation amounted to 259,719, showing a diminution also of 5,337. The parcels passing through the kingdom were 17,268, showing a diminution of 5,132.

This diminution in the entire movement of international parcels is due to the economic crisis, owing to which there was less traffic in 1889-90. We notice, however, that although the total number of parcels of all kinds was less, there was an increase in those bearing charges and in those whose value was declared both in those exported and those imported.

The whole number of packages in Italy is represented by the

following figures:— (1097)

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Parcels	posted in the kingdo imported from abros	ema d			••	Number. 5,809,832 610,297
99 19	in Amenala		••	••	••	17,268
	Total	••	••	••	••	6,437,897

In the preceding financial year 1888-89 the whole number was

6,219,658, so there is an increase of 217,739.

In that part of the report dealing with the postal and commercial maritime services notice is taken of the inquiries and proposals of the commission for the reorganisation of the maritime services. The institution of a line of steamships between Naples, Palermo, and London is mentioned. This line was opened on August 22, 1890.

A line for direct communication with Massowah was established, and the contract with the Peninsular and Oriental Company for communication between Venice and Alexandria was prolonged for 1891. Mention is also made of all the improve-

ments introduced into the maritime postal service.

The transport of valuables for Public Debt and Treasury by

the post office is also important.

In the year 1889-90 scrip to bearer ("titoli al portatore") was carried to the extent of more than 15,000,000 lire (600,000l.), and registered scrip to the amount of 34,000,000 lire (1,360,000l.). 67,000,000 lire (2,680,000l.) was carried on account of the Treasury.

The Indian mail service for 1889-90 gives 53,168 bags of European correspondence against 60,975 bags in the previous

year.

The diminution of 7,807 bags is due to the new route opened for Australian correspondence. In this special service there was a movement of 18,009 bags, showing an increase of 1,008 bags on the year 1888-89.

P.S.—Since the above was written an article has appeared in the "Popolo Romano," of which the following is a translation:

"In the report of the Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs, lately published, there are several important points to be noticed, although it does not exclusively deal with the postal and telegraphic movement. Having resolved on the unification of the postal and telegraphic services, a beginning was made in the central administration. The two former general directions had two councils of administration, two audit departments, two financial departments, distinct and separate, regulated by separate laws. Further, the former general administration of posts and telegraphs had three.

"With the establishment of a Ministry a single council of administration was instituted, a single audit department, a single

financial department, with the same set of regulations.

"The divisions were reduced from 13 to 9; therefore there was a great reduction in the number of employés of the central admisistration and a corresponding diminution in the expenses, as no new hands were admitted, and vacancies caused by death or retirement were not filled up. This unification brought about the union into one building of all the services dependent on the two former general directions, which were scattered in various

Government and private buildings at Rome.

"The palace in the Via del Seminario, where the former Direzione Generale was established, offered accommodation for all the offices; however, it was indipensable that the ground floor, the first floor, and other portions of the building should be restored, as they were in bad condition and were uninhabitable from neglect. The Minister of Posts and Telegraphs caused these repairs to be carried out with the funds of the estimates without making a fresh appeal to the Treasury. The total expenditure amounted to '193,556 lire (7,7421.), and thus all the offices were established in this palace, the private houses were given up, and an annual sum of 65,720 lire (2,6281.) for rent was saved. Further, many of the Crown buildings, in which the Direction of Telegraphs was formerly established, were given up to the Ministry of Public Works. By this unification the reciprocal instruction of post office and telegraph employes was instituted. The post-office employes admitted to telegraph instruction numbered 1,571, of which 426 passed the standard. The telegraph employes admitted to learn post-office work numbered 1,390, and 463 were declared competent.

"In about a thousand offices the postal and telegraph service is united, and administered by one director. The two postal laws of June 20, 1889, and June 12, 1890, came into force. Many useful innovations were instituted by these laws, and various simplifications in the service, which brought about a saving of time and money. The institution of postal orders ("cartolina-vaglia"), which came into force on October 1, 1890, and the power of endorsing post-office orders and telegraphic money orders,

found great favour in the eyes of the public.

"But besides postal orders and the circulation of endorsed post-office orders, many diminutions in charges were introduced, especially in the issue of post-office orders, in insuring parcels, and in registered letters. It may also be noticed that the stamp on daily papers has been reduced from 1 centesimo to 6 millesimi.

"The telegraph laws of April 6, and February 20, 1890, also came into force, and through these, and owing to international conventions, the telegraph tariffs between Italy and the offices in Africa, that between Italy and Germany, and the tariff paid to the Eastern Telegraph Company were reduced.

"The terminal and transit tariff for extra European corre-

spondence was also reduced.

"The application of these diminished tariffs is of too recent date for us to give a definite opinion as yet on their influence on the postal and telegraphic movement; however, judging by the statistics of a few months, it may be gathered that the movement has surpassed the estimates as regards post-office orders where the diminution of the tariff has been most strongly felt. In the financial year1888-89 there was an increase in the number of post-office orders to the extent of over 1,000,000, and for a money value of more than 170,000,000 lire, or 6,800,000l., in

spite of the competition of postal orders.

"It is true that there has been a slight diminution in the receipts in those cases where the tax has been diminished, but the increase in the movement is so great that this diminution is disappearing, and the proof of this is the continual increase in postal and telegraphic correspondence, not only in 1889-90 as compared with 1888-89, but still more in the second half of 1890, in which the ascertained correspondence has surpassed the estimate, and in the case of telegraphs the result is almost the same. This has not happened for several years.

"This proves once again that certain diminutions of tariff not only do not diminish the amount of correspondence, but increase it.

The postal service was amplified.

"The post offices in the year 1889-90 were increased by 80, collectorates of the first class by 115, and also 195 new post offices; in the second half year of 1890, that is from July 1 to January 80, 1890, 23 other new post offices were established, and 170 new collectorates of the first class.

"The country service was increased by 266 new postmen.

"The new telegraph offices opened to the public were 170 in the year 1889-90, and from July 1 to December 31, 1890, 107 others were opened.

"A direct line of steamships was opened with Massowah.

"The movement of correspondence and parcels increased markedly, and this shows that the economic conditions of the

kingdom in 1889-90 were better than in 1888-89.

"The amount of stamped correspondence during the financial year 1889-90 was 348,510,472, showing an increase of 6,467,115 as compared with 1888-89. Registered letters showed an increase of 339,879, and the insured letters of 97,125. The parcels post service was extended to many foreign places, and the movement amounted to 6,437,268, showing an increase of 217,739 as compared with 1888-89. Parcels from foreign countries amounted to 610,297, showing a decrease of 18,514 as compared with 1888-89, and those exported numbered 239,719, showing a decrease of 5,337.

"Correspondence exempted from taxation is still very large in amount, in spite of the trouble taken by the post-office authorities to limit it, as the correspondence exempted is out of

proportion to the registered correspondence.

"The Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs has made frequent appeals to the different offices, in order that registration should only be asked for in the case of really important papers and documents.

"Telegrams of various kinds amounted in 1889-90 to

19,196,139, showing an increase of 123,462 as compared with 1888-89.

"Government telegrams amounted to 601,944. In this category the increase is progressive, and on that account the Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs moved the different Government offices not to use the telegraph in cases where the post would serve the same end, in order not to overburden the telegraph lines in the interest of Government and private telegraphic correspondence. The post-office savings bank also show a satisfactory progress, and this proves that 1890 was more prosperous than 1889, as in 1890 the amount of deposits surpassed the amount drawn out by 15,118,103 lire (604,724l.), while the difference in 1889 was 12,769,730 lire (510,789l.); in 1889 the total amount deposited was 285,965,332 lire (11,438,613l.), in 1890 it reached 310,480,435 lire (12,419,217l.)."

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1891.

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#### REPORT ON THE

AMOUNT OF PRIVATE WEALTH IN ITALY AS COM-PARED WITH THAT OF OTHER COUNTRIES IN EUROPE.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, JULY, 1891.

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#### ITALY.

#### ROME.

The Marquis of Dufferin and Ava to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Rome, June 7, 1891.

FROM published and unpublished returns of the Italian Statistical Office Mr. Dering has compiled a Report, which I have the honour to enclose herewith, on the amount of private wealth in Italy, as compared with some other European countries whose population is about equal to that of this country.

I cannot but think that this report will prove of interest in various quarters, and I beg to recommend it to your Lordship's

favourable consideration.

I have, &c. (Signed) DUFFERIN AND AVA.

### Estimate of the Amount and Increase of Private Wealth in Italy.

The attempt to estimate the private wealth of a country is at all times a difficult task. As regards Italy, the general questions to be decided would be:—What does the general production of the country amount to? What is its capital of all descriptions? What the amount of its real and personal property, and what the increase or decrease in its production, or in the aggregate of capital in the country from year to year?

Statisticians are very cautious in hazarding general estimates

on elements which must, in great part, be conjectural.

Before entering into the investigation, it would seem advisable to define exactly the respective constituent parts of public, private, and national wealth.

Public wealth is that which belongs to the State, the provinces, communes and their dependent associations, as well as that belonging to other bodies having administrative privileges, such for instance as ecclesiastical foundations, benevolent associations and the like. It comprises all Government property, and that of (1143)

the public domain under the head of roads, canals, bridges, fortifications, &c.

Private wealth consists of the property of private individuals, or of legally recognised associations, limited liability companies, &c. In estimating private wealth all sums due to individuals from the State or other public body must be taken into account in each individual case, as part of the capital, while the private debts of citizens in general to individuals cannot be included in the valuation without the risk of such sums being counted twice over.

National wealth comprises the entire sum of public wealth belonging to citizens of the State, including that of communes

and provinces, as well as all private property.

Whatever may be the method by which it is desired to ascertain the sum total of the riches of any country, it is necessary to have a precise notion of the relations existing between the foregoing three elements. The known methods to obtain this valuation are confined to two: one, which may be called the "positive" method, consists in making an inventory of every form of riches existing at a given moment in the country, as derived from agriculture, manufacturing, and mining industries, existing precious metals and so on. The second, which may be termed the "personal" method, consists in the separate estimate of the property of individuals over and above their debts.

The partial statistics existing in most countries relating to the principal forms of wealth do not suffice to make an accurate valuation under the first method; and in carrying out the second method in the absence of a fixed register of both real and personal property, it is necessary to have recourse to the returns made for purposes of taxation of incomes derived from capital, or to those made for the imposition of succession and donation duty on property becoming liable to it. The total income is then capitalised at the proper rate per cent., and the amount thus obtained multiplied by the average duration of a generation, i.e., by the number of years after which, on an average, all property changes its owner.

Professor Pantaleoni, in Italy, and Professor de Foville, in France, have endeavoured to calculate the total of private wealth in their respective countries on the basis of official returns as to successions and donations. Mr. Giffen undertook, at two separate periods, viz., 1875 and 1885, to estimate the national wealth (i.e., public and private wealth united) in Great Britain and Ireland, taking public wealth as meaning the property of Government and other public bodies, but not that of the public domain, such as roads, canals, bridges, &c. He mainly employed the income tax returns as a basis of calculation, so that these latter can scarcely be compared with the calculations of the two aforementioned writers without certain allowances, as Mr. Giffen has excluded the public debt, as well as the liabilities of local bodies; whilst in the estimates of Professors Pantaleoni and de Foville,

ROME. 3

these debts are included in so far as they form the portion of it held by the private citizens of their respective countries.

In France, de Foville, Professor in the Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers, and Director of the Bureau of Statistics, and comparative legislation in the Ministry of Finance, estimates private wealth, both real and personal, to amount to 210,000,000,000 fr. (8,400,000,000l.) basing his valuation on the annual value of successions. The reasoning which forms the basis of his calculation is as follows: Every year certain property changes owners by reason of death, either under will or through intestacy.

Admitting that at this moment in France, the duration of a generation is 35 years, the title to all private property will have

undergone a change of owners within that period.

It is necessary, however, to take into account not only successions, but donations "inter vivos," dowries, and sums advanced by parents to children for their establishment in commerce or industry; for such donations, dowries, and similar advances, may be considered as part of a succession anticipated, and as occurring within the same period of time. The French financial administration does not deduct the debt from the inheritance, but publishes the values as declared, without allowing for liabilities with which they may happen to be charged. M. de Foville is of opinion that this indebtedness is equivalent to the undeclared sums, or to sums insufficiently declared to the State, and simply multiplies the gross financial statistical returns by the average duration of a generation. In this way he deduces that since 1880, private wealth has increased in France at the rate of 3,000,000,000 fr. (120,000,000l.) in good years, 2,000,000,000 fr. (80,000,000l.) in average years, and 1,000,000,000 fr. (40,000,000l.) in bad years.

Of these 3,000,000,000 fr. only a portion, according to the same author, is employed in industrial enterprise, the remainder being invested in house property, in agricultural improvements, and in various other forms of small investment. invested in stocks, shares, and bonds, amounts to about the half of this sum, or 1,500,000,000 fr. (60,000,000l.), including the investments in the Funds, and in Communal and Departmental These latter amount to about 500,000,000 fr. Loans. (20,000,000*l*.) annually, since 1870, leaving, thus, about 1,000,000,000 fr. for investment in industrial societies generally. Investments abroad enter for a considerable portion of this latter The same author further estimates that private individuals in France hold about 80,000,000,000 fr. (3,200,000,000l.), invested in the Public Funds, stocks, and bonds of all sorts, of which 30,000,000,000 fr. (1,200,000,000l.) are in the French and foreign Public Funds, and the remaining 50,000,000,000 fr. (2,000,000,000l.) in various other investments.

Mr. Giffen, chiefly on the basis of income tax returns, calculated that in 1885 the national wealth of Great Britain and Ireland amounted to 10,000,000,000*l*., or 250,000,000,000 fr., as against 8,500,000,000*l*. or 212,000,000,000 fr. in 1875, showing an increase of about 150,000,000*l*. He estimated the value of

(1143)

government and local property in 1885 at 500,000,000l., or 12,500,000,000 fr., as against 400,000,000l. in 1875, showing an increase in the ten years of 100,000,000l., or 2,500,000,000 fr.

With regard to Prussia, an approximate estimation of private wealth may be gathered from the returns of taxable incomes, which form the basis for the "Einkommensteuer." These were estimated by Soetbeer in 1876 at 1,382,000,000 marks (69,100,000l.), and at 1,980,000,000 marks (or 99,000,000l.) in 1888. This increase would appear, consequently, to be 748,000,000 fr., representing an annual increase of 62,000,000 fr. (2,480,000l.).

Making allowances for the amount of incomes below 3,750 fr., or 150l., which are subject only to the Klassensteuer, Herr Soetbeer considers the yearly average increase of private wealth in Prussia between 1879 and 1885 to have been 2,070,000,000 fr. or (82,800,000l.).

The first existing calculation made in Italy to ascertain the extent of private wealth in the country was in 1880 in the Ministerial Report accompanying the project of law for the abolition of forced currency. The yearly savings of the country, so far as regarded capital invested in public funds, or deposited in the savings banks were then estimated to amount to 300,000,000 of fr. (12,000,000l.). The imposition, however, of a tax on income generally does not touch all sources of income, either from the peculiar nature of the tax, or on account of exceptions made to its application. As there exist abundant data, on the other hand, in the return for the tax on business transactions, it is better to take as the basis of calculation, the total amounts of successions and donations as was done in France by M. de Foville.

According to official returns, and calculations made by the Italian Statistical Department, the amount of capital transferred by succession, usufruct and donation during the period 1875–1890 was as follows:—

	Year	r.		Currency.	Sterling.
				Francs.	£
1875		••		1,024,064,977	40,952,599
1876	••	••		964,831,698	38,573,267
1877	••	••		1,067,880,820	42,695,282
1878	••	••		1,033,885,270	41,355,410
1879	••	••		960,855,425	38,414,217
1880	••	• •	••	1,107,932,778	44,317,311
1881	••	••		1,095,630,300	43,825,212
1882	••	••	•.	1,112,895,200	44,515,808
1888		••	••	1,171,980,800	46,877,232
1884-88	<b>5</b>		]	1,187,588,000	47,501,280
1885-86	<b>3</b>	••		1,172,819,700	46,912,788
1886-87	7	••		1,268,166,400	50,526,656
1887-88	3	••		1,266,025,400	50,641,016
1888-89		• •		1,144,139,250	45,765,570
1889-90	)	• •		1,196,261,852	47,850,454

ROME. 5

The total value of the returns made to Government, or otherwise obtained, shown in the foregoing table must be, however, somewhat increased in order to give the actual value of the property so transferred, allowance having to be made for cases where the returns were insufficient, and for many in which no returns were made at all. Professor Pantaleoni takes 25 per cent. as the co-efficient of this necessary increase, which figure may be accepted as not exaggerated.

One must then multiply the amount, increased in the above proportion, by the average life duration of a generation, fixed by Pantaleoni, for reasons given in his work, at 36 years in Italy, as against 35 years in France. Assuming the above calculation to be correct, we arrive at the returns from which the average of the

three following quinquennial periods are taken:—

	Year.			Currency.	Sterling.
				Francs.	£.
1875–79	••	••	••	<b>45,500,000,000</b>	1,820,000,000
1880–8 <b>5</b>	••	••	••	51,100,000,000	2,044,000,000
1886-90	••	••		54,400,000,000	2,178,000,000

The mean annual increase from the quinquennial period 1880-85 to the period 1886-90 would thus be about 650,000,000 fr. (26,000,000*l*.). It must be borne in mind that at least 300,000,000 fr. or 12,000,000*l*. are exported yearly in the form of railway obligations, Public Funds, industrial shares, &c., to pay the deficit in the balance of Italian trade, and further that a portion of such securities are registered in the name of their foreign owners, which securities again become liable on their owner's death to succession duty, so that they are comprised in the aforequoted total yearly increase of private property of 650,000,000 fr.

Property owned by foreigners in Italy also forms part of the value of succession. Foreign capital is now being invested in houses, land, and industrial establishments in Italy to a much larger extent than in former years. There now exist several foreign companies, such as the Bochum Company at Savona, the Schwarzkopf Torpedo Factory at Venice, and the Armstrong works at Pozzuoli, besides numerous railways, gasworks, &c., which are being constructed with foreign capital, not to speak of the sums invested by English firms in the Sicilian wine trade. The increase in the value of property in Italy belonging to foreigners may now be reckoned as close upon 150,000,000 fr., or 6,000,000 yearly, during the last three years.

There remains to be accounted for an increase of 500,000,000 fr. (20,000,000*l*.) in all others forms of real and personal property, about two-fifths of which are invested in securities, and the remainder employed in agricultural improvements, buildings,



shipping, industrial establishments, &c. As against the value of property owned by foreigners in Italy, may of course be set the value of property owned abroad by Italians resident in their own country, although this represents a comparatively much smaller amount.

In short, the 500,009,000 fr. (20,000,000*l*.) of Italy, may be compared with the 3,000,000,000 fr. (120,000,000*l*.) of France, with the 2,070,000,000 fr. (82,800,000*l*.) of Prussia, and with the 3,750,000,000 fr. (150,000,000*l*.) of Great Britain and Ireland.

# VARIOUS DIRECT METHODS FOR THE VALUATION OF WEALTH.

It is possible to ascertain the amount of private wealth either by capitalising the taxable income derived from land, buildings and personal property, or by taking as a basis the statistical returns of agricultural and industrial produce. Before following out either of these direct methods, it will be well to becompose the total amount of private wealth in Italy, which taking as a basis the property which has changed hands during the quinquennial period 1886-90, has been calculated at 54,000,000,000 fr. (2,160,000,000.)

According to the report of the comptroller of the "Demanio," for the period 1885-86—1889-90, the property which changed hands, during that time either by succession or donation consisted of seven-tenths real property. According to the same returns, real property in Italy, whether urban or rural, could not amount to less than 38,000,000,000 fr. (1,520,000,000l.) leaving as the value of personal property the amount of 16,000,000,000 fr.

(640,000,000l.).

How is this sum of 38,000,000,000 fr. to be fairly apportioned

between land and buildings?

As regards the latter, their taxable income, according to the returns for direct taxation for 1889, is known to be 416,000,000 fr. (16,640,000*l*.). Capitalising this taxable income at 4½ per cent., (reduced to 3⅓ per cent. if free from taxes) we arrive at the sum of 9,000,000,000 fr. (360,000,000*l*.). This 9,000,000,000 fr. is, however, saddled with liabilities to the amount of some 3,000,000,000 fr. (120,000,000*l*.) so that the net value of house property in Italy to its owners amounts to 6,000,000,000 fr. (240,000,000*l*.). Subtracting 6,000,000,000 fr. from 38,000,000,000 fr. there remain 32,000,000,000 fr. (1,280,000,000*l*.) representing the actual value of landed property, free from liabilities.

There is, however, much reason to believe that the value of land in Italy exceeds this sum of 32,000,000,000 fr., a total

founded on the returns for successions and donations.

The returns of agricultural produce sent in by the cultivators are notoriously below the amount of produce actually raised. In any case these returns give an annual produce of the value of 5,000,000,000 fr., or 200,000,000l. From this amount, according to Professor Mazzini, Secretary General of the Agri-

cultural Enquiry Commission and other known authorities, 60 per cent. must be deducted for expenses of cultivation, so that 2,000,000,000 fr., or 80,000,000l., remain clear to the proprietor or cultivator.

Again, the same authority calls attention to the fact that this estimate of the value of agricultural produce is not always that amount received by the proprietor or cultivator, but that realised by the middleman in the market. Taking this view of the case, deducting these grounds 275,000,000 on 2,000,000,000 fr., 11,000,000*l*., from the there 1,725,000,000 fr., out of which total all state, provincial, and communal taxes have to be paid, to say nothing of local taxes on live-stock, insurance, &c. These, together, form a total of another 270,000,000 fr., or 10,800,000l., to which must be added another 200,000,000 fr., or 8,000,000l., representing farmers profits. There remains then to the land owners a revenue of 1,255,000,000 fr., or 50,200,000l., which, capitalised at the rate of 3 per cent., represents a total of 42,000,000,000 fr., or 1,680,000,000l., as against 32,000,000,000 fr., or 1,280,000,000/., calculated from the succession returns.

This latter total, however, is supposed to represent the value of landed property, free of debt and mortgage, the total amount of which, the best authorities estimate at 5,000,000,000 fr., or 200.000,000%

The interest on such loans would average 5 per cent., admitting that the produce of the land amounted to 3 per cent. It would thus be necessary to deduct from the 1,255,000,000 fr. of revenue, 250,000,000 (10,000,000l.), representing the interest payable on these 5,000,000,000 fr., leaving, consequently, to the landowners a clear revenue of 1,005,000,000 fr., or 40,200,000l. If this amount be again capitalised at a rate of 3 per cent., it would bring the actual net value of landed property to 33,500,000,000 fr., or 1,340,000,000l., so that even with these deductions, the value of land is, by this method, shown to be greater than when calculated on the basis of the succession returns.

To turn to personal property, or more properly to that part of it which consists in marketable securities already estimated at 16,000,000,000 fr. (640,000,000l.), in order to subdivide it under its several heads it will be necessary to have recourse to the figures published regarding income tax by the Comptroller of Direct Taxation, who, in his report for 1888-89, estimated incomes under Schedule A (i.e., subject to taxation by register [tassa per ruoli]) at 377,000,000l. fr. (15,180,000l.). This sum does not, however, represent the whole amount of private capital yielding taxable income. To ascertain the remainder account must be taken of that portion of the income tax collected by "retention," i.e., the portion retained by Government in paying dividends on the Public Funds, on the 3 per cent. railway obligations, on annuities, treasury bonds, or on any other stock guaranteed and paid by Government. The amount of this portion of the income tax (Schedule A fis.)

is estimated at 72,000,000 fr. (2,280,000*l*.). A considerable portion, probably one-half, of such investments, is held abroad. If this estimate is correct, there would remain in Italy 650,000,000 fr. (26,000,000*l*.) of private capital liable to income tax. Capitalising this amount at 6 per cent., the total will be found to be

11,000,000,000 fr., or 440,000,000l.

From this latter figure must be deducted all sums held by public administrative bodies, such as the Treasury, the Mint, &c., as well as all liabilities due on various forms of personal property. The amount deducible under these two heads cannot be less than 2,000,000,000 fr. (80,000,000l.), taking into consideration that from the 5 per cent. consolidated fund alone 1,600,000,000 fr. (64,000,000l.) nominal value have to be deducted for the abovementioned reasons. The total amount of personal property consequently, held in Italy by private individuals, free from liabilities,

may be safely put at 9,000,000,000 fr. (360,000,000%).

There remains for estimation furniture and ready cash, which items are included in the calculations based on the valuation of successions and donations. The value of such property is given in the official returns for 1889-90, under the head of furniture, cash and other forms of unproductive personal property taxed for succession duty, at 98,000,000 fr. (3,920,0001.) out of a total value of personal property estimated at 363,000,000 fr. (14,520,000l.). In round numbers, the above category of property amounts to 27 per cent. of the whole value of personal property, and to the eleventh part of the total value of both real and personal property. So that furniture, ready cash, and other unproductive forms of private property would amount to about 4,000,000,000 fr. (160,000,000l.) out of the 16,000,000,000 fr. above-mentioned. These 4,000,000,000 fr. added to the amount of stock held throughout Italy, free from liabilities stated, as above, to be 9,000,000,000 fr. would amount to 13,000,000,000 fr. (520,000,000l.) or little less than the sum arrived at by calculating on the basis of successions and donations.

The "positive" method, however, of calculation before described, when applied to landed property, gives that class of property a far higher value than is assigned to it by reckoning its worth according to official returns for successions and donations (32,000,000,000 fr.) so that Professor Pantaleoni's estimate placing its average value for the period between 1885-89 at 55,000,000,000 fr. (2,200,000,000).) may not in reality be very

far from the truth.

There is another fact well worthy of notice, viz.: the great difference between the relative proportion of real to personal property in Italy and France respectively. In Italy, the respective value of land, buildings, and capital, constituting personal property, clear of all liabilities, stands, as estimated from successions and donations as follows:—

32+6+16=54,000,000,000 fr. (2,160,000,000*l*.) or, as the component parts of 100: 58: 12: 30=100.

In France the same three categories of property are given by

de Foville respectively: -80+50+80=210,000,000,000 fr.

(8,400,000,000%).

These relative proportions cannot however, be compared with those for Italy without remembering that de Foville calculates the value of property in France on the basis of successions and donations without any deduction for liabilities with which it may be burdened, whereas the Italian figures represent the value of

property free from all mortgage debts.

The total mortgage debts on land in France are put by de Foville at 8,000,000,000 fr., (320,000,000L), and those on buildings at 7,000,000,000 fr. (280,000,000L). Scrip, and other similar personal property can only be officially mortgaged when nominative. Bearing this latter circumstance in mind, it is reckoned that the liabilities on personal property of this nature in France amounts to 5,000,000,000 fr. (200,000,000L). Shares in the Credit Foncier and "obligations" (bonds) of a similar nature, however, are in constant circulation, and contribute to increase the total value of personal property. The figures for France, representing the value of land, buildings, and capital constituting personal property, free from liabilities, would thus stand in the following relative proportions: 72 + 43 + 95 = 210,000,000,000 fr. (8,400,000,000l.), or in component parts of 100, 34: 20: 46 = 100.

Mr. Giffen has obtained for Great Britain and Ireland the following results: land, 42,000,000,000 fr. (1,680,000,000*l*.); buildings, 48,000,000,000 fr. (1,920,000,000*l*.); and personal property, 160,000,000,000 fr. (6,400,000,000*l*.). Total, 250,000,000,000 fr. (10,000,000,000*l*.). This calculation was based on the official income tax returns, with an allowance of 6,000,000,000 fr. (240,000,000*l*.), representing the value of incomes not subject to the tax, *i.e.*, 150*l*. a year. Mr. Giffen does not, however, include that portion of the national debt held by British subjects.

The above calculations, however, must not be considered as strictly official statistical returns, but rather as the result of careful studies made with the object of furnishing a reply to numerous queries as to the amount of private wealth in this

country.

Signor Bodio, director of the Italian Statistical Department, has just re-written his interesting work on the Economic Progress of Italy, and it is to that gentleman's courtesy that I am indebted for the bulk of the foregoing information.

HENRY NEVILL DERING.

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#### MEXICO.

#### VERA CRUZ.

Consul Baker to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Vera Cruz, March 25, 1891.

WITH reference to my despatch of October 29, 1889, and the Report transmitted therewith on the Port of Vera Cruz and the Works in Progress for its Improvement, I have now the honour to transmit a Supplemental Report on the same subject, which will, no doubt, be found a subject of general and commercial interest, having regard to the rapid growth of Anglo-Mexican trade during the last few years.

I have, &c. (Signed) A. BAKER.

Supplemental Report on the Port of Vera Cruz and the Works in Progress for its Improvement.

It is much to be regretted, but it is a fact, that the hope works not expressed in my former report, on the above subject (Foreign prosecuted Office, 1890, Miscellaneous Series No. 153), that the port works with sufficient here would be prosecuted with energy has not been realised.

The main causes of the delay have been: (1) the deficiency of Causes of adequate plant; (2) the youth and inexperience and frequent delay. change of the engineers entrusted with the execution of the work; (3) the apparent desire of the contractor not to invest capital of his own, but to carry on the work entirely with the weekly and half-yearly payments received from the Federal Government.

With regard to the deficiency of plant, my previous report Deficiency of (p. 7) gives a schedule of the plant received by Mr. Cerdán, the plant. contractor, from the Government (which had belonged to the original French contractors) and also of the plant supplied by Mr. Cerdán from the date of his taking over the contract to the date (1096)

of my previous report, October 20, 1889. Since the latter date Mr. Cerdán has added to the plant: (1) A small locomotive (American); (2) a locomotive of 15-horse power; (3) a floating crane for placing blocks in position on the breakwater, near the surface of the water.

New floating crane.

The floating crane has only recently been put together and launched; but as it has no motive power of its own, and consequently has to be towed, it is not an expeditious worker. In fact, its use involves too much handling of the blocks, e.g., a block is conveyed from the place of construction to the point of embarkation in a special skeleton crane truck; it is then transferred by a crane to a steam lighter, from which it is received by the floating crane, which is towed into the position necessary for depositing the block in its destined place. By this complex operation a block takes nearly two hours to place, so that the floating crane, working 15 hours per day, would only place 74 blocks per day, or 1,875 per year of 250 working days (and the year cannot be reckoned at more on account of the northers, other bad weather, holidays, &c.), at which rate of progress it would take nearly 10 years to lay the blocks still remaining to be placed.

Government engineer killed at works.

Under these circumstances the opinion of Mr. Villaseñor, quoted with approval in my previous report, that the plant is inadequate, cannot even now be substantially modified. Mr. Villaseñor was the Government engineer-inspector of the works up to March 24 instant, when he, with several others, were killed by an accident at the works caused by the bad construction or bad working of a derrick which was being used to raise from the bottom of the sea, for the purpose of inspection, some 2-ton blocks, thrown in to protect the foundation of the breakwater in course of construction. As this accident may become the subject of litigation, the causes of it cannot, with propriety, be discussed at present.

Contractor's Government property.

The deplorable inadequacy of plant is no doubt referable to an plant becomes article of the contract, which makes Government property all plant brought on the ground by the contractor, who somewhat naturally, though not really wisely, provides as little plant as possible.

And here it may be remarked that the article as to plant is not the only one in the contract that is open to criticism; on the contrary, the main provisions of the contract have, in the result, proved very advantageous to the contractor and very onerous for the Government. But, of course, the Government could not foresee this, and, in concluding the contract, they acted on the best advice they had on hand. And equally, of course, the contractor, in his own interests, exacts the fulfilment of the obligations in his favour which the contract imposes on the Government. One of the greatest mistakes that characterise the contract is the schedule of prices, which, as will be seen later on, enables the contractor to draw over 60 per cent. of the price before he has completed more than 80 per cent. of the work.

With regard to the second cause of delay, it may be remarked that the engineers employed in carrying out the work are not only

Schedule of prices too liberal.

changed with great frequency, but have never made a really Nature of sea serious study of the sea bottom along the line of the breakwater bottom not in construction; and this remark applies not only to the young ascertained before the engineers, but also in great measure to Mr. Thiers, who formed commencehis estimate of the cost of the works on the assumption that the ment of the sea bottom, as it existed at the date of his estimate, was per-works. manent and sufficiently solid to support the heavy breakwater which he designed, and which is now in course of construction. Strange as it may seem, it is still a fact that this assumption was never tested, and was only disproved by the 28-ton blocks themselves, which have sunk many feet into the sand and mud which form the sea bottom of a considerable proportion of the line of breakwater. The main idea of the contractor and his engineers seems to have been to throw in blocks, and to collect their inflated value according to the schedule of prices; and during the years that Mr. Cerdán has had the contract no adequate attempt has been made by him, or by anyone else, to ascertain the precise nature of the sea bottom. It is true that Mr. Villaseñor published some time ago a treatise on the port works, to which he annexed sections of the sea bottom as shown by over 80 borings; but, after diligent inquiry, I cannot find that these borings were in fact made, and I am reluctantly compelled to come to the conclusion that Mr. Villaseñor (who was so crippled as to make it difficult for him to go on board a boat himself) was entirely deceived as to these 80 odd borings, and that, as a matter of fact, they were never made.

Another proof of the inexperience of those entrusted with the execution of the works is, I fear, to be found in the terrible accident which occurred a day or two ago, and which killed Mr. Villasenor and two others, and dangerously wounded two others; but, for obvious reasons, one cannot yet discuss the responsibility

for this lamentable occurrence.

Yet another proof of the unfortunate want of skill and Slopes of experience that has prevailed in the execution of these works is breakwater do not accord to be found in the irregularity of the slopes of the breakwater, with the which in some places are steeper than, and in others not so steep specification. as, required by the contract, so that the strength of the work is

unequal.

It may be here remarked that the work executed up till now consists entirely of a certain height of the outer wall of the breakwater, made by throwing in concrete blocks "a fondo perdido"; the inner wall (over 20 metres from the outer one) is to be made of blocks laid in courses, and if this intention be adhered to its execution will be most difficult, having regard to the shifty character of the sea bottom. And, besides, it is proposed to fill in the space between the two walls with sand and rubble; but as the exterior wall below sea level will contain large cavities, it seems most probable that the heavy seas brought by the northers will carry away the filling about as fast as it can be thrown in. With the idea of remedying this evil, it is in contemplation to abandon the interior wall, and to reduce the width of the breakwater from (1096)



30 metres to 8 metres, which would be a great economy, although it would necessitate the abandoning of the idea of making the breakwater a wharf as well.

It will, of course, be seen that neither the Government nor the contractors are responsible for the facts that render desirable this modification of the original plan; and the matter is only mentioned here as being of intrinsic importance apart from the question of responsibility.

Financial aspect of works.

Mr. Thiers' estimate.

With regard to the financial aspect of the case, it will be necessary to glance at the original estimate made by Mr. Thiers, on which the Government relicd, and which had every appearance of being reliable, although, as the result proved, Mr. Thiers, when he made his estimate, had not sufficient data at his command with regard to the sea bottom, so that his estimate of quantities proved inadequate. Mr. Thiers' estimate was as follows:—

	£
240,000 cubic metres of hydraulic material at £2	480,000
80 per cent. ditto additional for filling cavities	144,000
300,000 cubic metres of sand for filling the space between the exterior and interior walls of the break-	
water, at 1s. 4d	20,000
86,000 square metres of clay puddling at 4d	600
Miscellaneous rubble	4,000
Total estimated cash cost of work	£648.600

#### To this were added the following percentages:-

						P	er cent.	
	ervision		••	••	••	••	6	
	encies		••	••	••	••	10	
Profit	••	••	••	••	• •		14	
	Total	••	••	••	••	••	<del>80</del> -	£194,580
	Total o	f Mr.	. Thier	s' estin	ate	••		£848,180

But, as has been seen, Mr. Thiers based his calculation on the assumption that the sea bottom was solid, which turned out not to be the fact. Mr. Ignacio Guzmán, now city engineer and surveyor, but who was formerly engineer of the port works, which post he resigned almost as soon as, by study and experience, he had become capable of efficiently directing them, and who was in fact the first to discover the error into which Mr. Thiers fell, estimates that the difference between the actual sea bottom and the one assumed by Mr. Thiers will cause an increase of 25 per cent. on the quantities estimated by the latter gentleman. Assuming Mr. Guzmán's view to be correct, and assuming also Mr. Thiers' estimate of prices to be correct, then the latter's estimate of the total cost of the breakwater must be increased by 25 per cent., viz., from 843,180l. to 1,053,975l.

But the present contractor's price is only 750,000l.; and, notwithstanding Mr. Thiers' estimate, it would seem to be quite adequate. It is payable as follows: 830l. (5,000 dol.) per week

Mr. Gusman's estimate of Mr. Thiers' error in quantities.

from the receipts of the Vera Cruz custom-house, and the balance of price earned every half-yera, at the end of such half-year it being understood that at least 83,3331. (500,000 dol.) be earned each half-year. As has been stated already, the schedule of prices annexed to the contract is so liberal that it has enabled the contractor to draw over 60 per cent. of the price before he has executed 30 per cent. of the work, with the result that he has been able to carry on the works with exclusively Government money, and without having to invest any capital of his own.

The following is an estimate of the contractor's receipts and Approximate expenditure up to the present time, and although it is not estimate of expenditure up to the present time, and authough it is not contractor's perfectly accurate it is approximately so, and quite sufficient for receipts and the purpose of showing how highly favourable to the contractor expenditures. has been the operation of the schedule of prices. And here again one must remember that in accepting the schedule of prices the Government acted on the best technical advice at its disposal, and that in enforcing it Mr. Cerdán is only exercising his legal rights: and of course, in anticipating his contract price, he does not relieve himself from the obligation to complete the works, even in the event of the price proving inadequate.

CONTRACTOR'S ESTIMATE.

. Receipta.	Expenditure.	
209 weekly payments of 830l. (5,000°dol.) received from the	42.000 tons of hydraulic lime, at 50s. loco Vera Cruz	£ . 105,000
	172,640 Extra plant (i.e., in addition to old plant received from 84,600 Government)	
Total cash received Bonds still running	257,140 Timber, 1,000,000 feet, at 56, per 1,000 feet	6,000 83,200
	Balance—amount received by contractor in expenditure	n 247,187
Total received in cash and bonds	464,440	464,440

Now, if the above estimate be even approximately accurate (and the present writer believes that to be the case), it shows that under the liberal schedule of prices the contractor has received from the Government double the amount he has expended on the works, and the amount so received is equal to 62 per cent. of the Contractor contract price, although the work actually executed does not, in appears to the present writer's opinion, amount to 30 per cent. of the total 62 per cent. work to be done according to the contract.

This extraordinary effect of the schedule of prices has given executing 30 rise to much criticism in many circles and in the Press. No one per cent. of suggests that the contractor, Mr. Cerdán, has not sufficient capital to carry out the contract, even in the improbable case of its resulting in a loss; but much dissatisfaction exists at the fact that he should have been able to draw so much in excess of the proportion earned of the price; though, as already pointed out, he has only insisted on his legal rights, which the Government were bound to respect, although the effect of the schedule of prices they were advised to accept, and did accept, must have been a great surprise to them. It is generally believed here that Visit of the recent visit of General Berriozabel was not altogether un-General connected with this matter. As regards the attitude of the local Berriozabel. Press towards this question, it may be remarked that the principal Press apologist for the works and their contractor is the "Ferro-Carril." criticisms. conducted by Mr. José Rossell, a native of Cuba, and his son; whilst the most hostile critic, Mr. Cerdán, has in the local Press the "Mosquito," a journal which, as its name indicates, is rather more apt to inflict wounds than to heal them. fortunately not necessary to decide all the questions between the "Ferro-Carril" and the "Mosquito," though there can be no doubt that the latter is, in the main, more in accord than the former with intelligent public opinion on this question of the port works.

The time fixed for the completion of the breakwater expires Works will in May, 1892, but it is manifest now that its completion by that not be date is impossible, and Mr. Cerdán has applied for an extension of completed time and for other medifications of the certain time and for other modifications of the contract.

As regards the effect on the port of the work already done period. (i.e., the construction of the exterior wall of the breakwater to Effect of within about a metre of the surface of the water at high tide), it works so far cannot be said that the effect is as vet very appreciable, and over cannot be said that the effect is as yet very appreciable; and even when the breakwater is completed, it will not protect the whole of the port, for the reason that the port is about a mile long and from half a mile to three-quarters broad, thus presenting to the action of the "Northers" an enormous area of water for the formation of waves. It was part of Mr. Theirs' design to break up this area of water by projecting T piers nearly half a mile long from the mainland to the deep channel which flows by the reef island of the Gallega (see plan annexed to the present writer's previous report, quoted above). But the T piers have not yet been seriously entertained, mainly on account of their cost.

contract



Scheme for reclaiming part of the ort from the sea.

In connection with this question of breaking up the large area of water, it may here be remarked that an English firm are said to be about to open negotiations for a concession to execute the work at their own expense, receiving as remuneration the right to build piers, and to reclaim from the sea a long strip of land in front of the town, at present covered with shallow water. This slip of land is about a mile in length, and at the N.W. end (adjoining the breakwater) about the sixth of a mile broad, tapering to a point at the S.E. end of its length. This scheme, if carried out, would have the advantage of reducing the area of the port by filling up a large slice of its shallow water (useless for shipping purposes), and of breaking up the area of deep water by the projection of piers into it. The concessionaires would also deepen the deep water channel by pumping sand out of it to fill up the strip of land to be reclaimed, thus effecting a valuable dredging operation simultaneously with their work of reclamation. value of the reclaimed land would be most considerable as sites for wharves with jetties, and would no doubt adequately pay the concessionaires for the works undertaken by them. They propose to build their sea wall by sinking concrete blocks, each one with a large cavity in its centre, through which the sand would be pumped so as to allow the block to sink to the solid bottom, a system which seems much more economic than that followed at the port works, viz., throwing in large blocks and allowing them to find their way to the hard bottom by the aid of the waves (the waves wash away the adjacent sand and the blocks sink more or less gradually, and often arrive at a considerable distance from their original position, according to the current or currents formed by the waves infringing on the face or faces of the blocks most exposed to their action).

Breakwater is ensuring smooth water in the harbour; its area must be broken up by piers, &c.

Apology for criticisms.

But whatever the result may be of this reclamation scheme, it insufficient for is quite clear that the mere completion of the breakwater will not ensure smooth water in the "Norther" season (about 90 days per annum), except over a small proportion of the large area of the port, and that sooner or later that large area will have to be broken up, either by piers alone or by piers accompanied by the filling up of the shallow water which lies between the deep water and the town.

> In conclusion, the present writer would disclaim all intention to criticise hastily any one connected with the port works; his only object being to give, as far as possible and as accurately as possible, a description of the present situation, and the causes of it, with regard to a great enterprise with which are closely associated the interests of Anglo-Mexican commerce and the development of it, which during the last five or six years has been advancing by leaps and bounds. Vera Cruz is at present the only port in the Republic with which the United Kingdom has important relations, and it would be a matter of great regret if she were to lose her supremacy through any mistake as to her harbour works, and the necessity of their prompt completion; and

it is hoped that this will be considered a sufficient apology for this report, and for the one to which it forms a supplement.

It is much to be regretted that experienced British contractors British did not compete for the contract for the execution of these im-contractors portant works, as suggested by the present writer in his commercial completed the report for the year 1886 (Foreign Office, 1887, Annual Series works long No. 146), when the "contract was in the market," for it is quite ago. clear that the chief cause of the delay has been the contractor's want of experience in engineering works of such magnitude. It is equally clear that if the works had been entrusted to some British firm of capital and experience they would long since have been entirely completed, and with the modifications necessary for correcting the errors of the original plan.

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1891.

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No. 191.

# REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

## PERSIA.

#### REPORT ON

# THE CULTIVATION OF OLIVES IN NORTHERN PERSIA.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, FEBRUARY, 1891.

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#### PERSIA.

#### TEHRAN.

Mr. Kennedy to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Tehran, January 1, 1891.

I HAVE the honour to enclose copy of a memorandum by Mr. Walter Townley on the subject of the Cultivation of Olives and the Manufacture of Olive Oil in Northern Persia.

I have, &c. (Signed) R. W. J. KENNEDY.

#### Olives in Northern Persia.

Travellers from Resht to Tehran cannot fail to notice the olive groves through which the post road runs between Rustema-bad and Manjeel, more especially when the village of Rudbar is traversed.

This district, where olives flourish naturally, consists of 43 villages, which are situated on the confines of the province of Gilân, between Rustemabâd on the north, Manjeel on the south, Tarum on the west, and Rahmetabâd on the east. This group of villages possesses from 80,000 to 100,000 trees, which yield on an average of years 1 to 1½ batman (6 to 9 lbs.) of olives per tree per annum. It is necessary to strike this average yield in good and bad years, as the olive tree bears plentifully and the reverse in alternate years. From the above estimates it will be seen that if we take the smallest amounts we shall have an average annual produce of 560,000 lbs. of olives, but if the higher amounts are taken the average annual produce will be 900,000 lbs. of olives; we may then strike a medium average between these two estimates, and put the average gross annual produce at 750,000 lbs. of olives.

The quantity of good olive oil derived from the Persian presses can be estimated at 17 per cent. of the olives, which will give us from the above estimates 127,000 lbs. of good olive oil. The good oil having been extracted, the residue is again pressed, and an oil of an inferior quality is produced, which is used in the manufacture of soap. The refuse still remaining over after the olives have been twice pressed is used as manure ("engrais") for the trees themselves. The value of the oil after a good harvest is

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2 krans (1s. 2d.) per bottle of 2 lbs. weight, at Resht or Tehran, whereas the maximum price paid per bottle after a bad harvest is 5 krans; but 2 krans per bottle may be taken as a fair average price. From the former estimates it will be seen that the average annual yield of the olives themselves in this district may be valued at 127,000 krans, about 3,850l. sterling. This is the actual value of the best oil produced, and does not include, on the one hand, the additional value of the inferior oil yielded after the olives have been pressed a first time, nor any value that the refuse may have; and, on the other hand, no deduction is made for the expenses incurred for labour, &c.

This, then, is the amount of oil produced in these villages at the present moment by the clumsy and slow process employed there, which was explained to me during a short visit to one of the

largest of them recently to be as follows:-

The olives are gathered in the late autumn, and at once stored in a kind of large bin, where they are left to ferment till the first spring suns—that is to say, till about the festival of the Persian new year, March 21; the olives are then spread out to dry on the flat house-tops. When perfectly dried they are again packed till they ferment: after this second fermentation, they are trodden by men somewhat after the fashion in which grapes are trodden in the wine press. After having been thus trodden they are boiled, and after boiling crushed in a sort of press between flat stones—a receptacle for the oil being placed beneath the stones. Naturally by this clumsy and laborious method the olives do not yield all the oil they contain, as it would hardly be possible thus, without machinery of any sort, to extract, possibly, more than the half of what would be extracted were modern appliances employed.

A monopoly for the purchase and working of all the olives in Northern Persia was granted to Messrs. Kousis and Theophilactos, Russian merchants of Baku, in a concession given to them by the Shah in the month of May last; and in order that no time may be lost in turning what can hardly fail to prove a profitable speculation to good account, a member of this firm has already been carefully studying the various methods employed in Europe in the pressing and the refining of olive oil, the method in practice in the olive oil presses of Marseilles having finally been selected by him.

It is the intention of the firm to very shortly establish a manufactory at Rudbar, and, possibly, in some others of the villages in this district.

Rudbar is situated on the Safeed Rud, which from that point is navigable down to its exit into the Caspian Sea during the greater part, if not the whole of the year, for strongly-built barges or rafts, and for flat-bottomed boats. It may, perhaps, be inferred from Messrs. Kousis' selection of this village for the establishment of their first manufactory that they intend to make use of the river on which at present, owing to the extreme rapidity of its current, there is no navigation, as a means of trans-

port, instead of using the very bad caravan road between Rudbar and Resht.

Of course it is impossible to say at present what the result of the venture may be, but it is, perhaps, not too much for these gentlemen to hope, by the employment of the best modern contrivances, to double the present production of oil.

I may add that every olive tree is subject to a Government tax

of 4 shahis (until lately only 1 shahi), or about  $1\frac{1}{2}d$ .

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# PERSIA.

#### REPORT ON A

JOURNEY FROM TEHRAN TO KARUN AND MOHAM-RAH, VIÂ KUM, SULTANABAD, BURUJIRD, KHOREMABAD, DIZFUL, AND AHWAZ.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, JULY, 1891.

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#### PERSIA.

#### TEHRAN.

Report by Major-General T. E. Gordon on a Journey from Tehran to Karun and Mohamrah, viâ Kum, Sultanabad, Burujird, Khoremabad, Dizful, and Ahwaz.

I LEFT Tehran on November 12, and, travelling by caravan stages, reached Sultanabad on the 19th idem. The employés of the Road Company Syndicate are now at work along the line, and have already made some improvements and alterations to facilitate wheel traffic. At Kum I was joined by Mr. Macqueen, the engineer of the syndicate, who accompanied me to Mohamrah.

At Sultanabad I visited the governor, Mustafa Kuli Khan. I spoke to him in favour of English commercial interests, Sultanabad which are increasing in the town and district, and he replied in a (about 171 promising manner. Messrs. Brown and Strauss, as agents of Tehran). Messrs. Hotz and Co. and Ziegler and Co. respectively, for carpet manufactures, reside at Sultanabad. They both have European assistants, and, in addition to carpet business, have

commenced to trade for export and import.

(1144)

Mr. Strauss has tried the proposed new route to the sea viâ the Karun, with a caravan of carpets, but the result has not been such as to encourage its further use at present, or to make it as yet preferable to the Kermanshah-Bagdad route. There were questions about customs dues claimed by local tax farmers, who knew nothing and heeded little of the 5 per cent. total claimable on foreign owned goods to be levied at Shuster, and thus caused delay and difficulty. And, again, the distance of 157 miles over the very rough hill road in Luristan, between Khoremabad and Dizful, being entirely without purchasable supplies for man or beast, renders it necessary to entertain extra pack animals for the carriage of these. The carriage hire demanded for this part of the road is very high, being about three times the ordinary rates. The reasons given are great risk of robbery by the Lurs en route, and the consequent little traffic giving poor chance of return loads. There exists a chronic state of fear of this road, and exaggerated rumours prevail. Later on I will return to this subject.

Carpet manufacture.

I inquired at Sultanabad as to the difficulties which had been represented as cause of complaint by British subjects in the pirating of special carpet designs given out to village weavers, who execute orders in their own homes, and the misappropriation of advances made for work, material, &c. Mr. Brown, who had originally made these complaints, said that he had decided to drop the complaint as to designs, and he believed that my conversation with the Governor, at which he was present, would have the effect of aiding in recovery of debts and misapplied advances. From quite a different point of view I would be glad to see the theft of designs stopped, for many of them are of a florid style, foreign to the east, and inferior to the old lovely Persian patterns.

Messrs. Brown and Strauss appear to be on good friendly terms with the Governor. Mr. Strauss informed me that he had no cause for complaint either about carpet designs or recovery of debts. He said he was cautious in his dealings, and generally found that, with exercise of patience, debts and just demands were paid and met. I gathered that the carpet business is now far from flourishing, owing to India going ahead rapidly in successful competition. From what I saw of it, I would say that part cause of the decline may be the manufacture having degenerated into that of cheap warm carpets, anything but true Persian in texture or style.

Trade exports.

It appeared to me that Messrs. Brown and Strauss act as agents for their respective firms in carpet manufacture only, and as traders otherwise on their own account. Mr. Brown is from Yorkshire, and was educated for some time in Holland. He has a good knowledge of Dutch, German, and French, and is fluent in Persian. He has a good manner with the Persians, and is quick, active, and energetic. He is well on the way to develop a considerable export from Sultanabad and Burujid of raisins, almonds, and the valuable "Katira" gum (tragacanthe).

Kermanshab-

At present he uses the Kermanshah-Bagdad route, on which Bagdad route the fullest facilities have of late been given for through transit. He consigns to an agent in Bagdad who passes on by river for sea shipment at Busrah. The muleteer in charge of the goods merely shows the invoice at Khani Kin, the Turkish frontier customs post, and proceeds to Bagdad, where examination is made, and the 1 per cent. through transit duty levied without unreasonable delay. But at other points on the Turco-Persian frontier, as, for instance, on the caravan route between Dizful and Amarah on the Tigris, where the river steamers call, the full import duty is still levied, to be returned minus I per cent. on the goods leaving Turkish territory. The general experience is said to be that considerably more than 1 per cent. is kept, and refund of the remainder obtained with difficulty. The greater facilities, however, afforded on the Kermanshah-Bagdad route indicate effort being made to maintain and encourage traffic on that line against the Mohamrah-Shuster-Burujird line. The former will always be the popular pilgrim route to Kerbela from the north, and this will continue to attract mule transport and keep rates low, so that for

some time to come, after the Shuster road is made, it may be expected to compete strongly as a line of communication between Tehran and the sea. But with a good road, and a well organised transport service under European control, the Karun route should

not fail to cut out its rivals.

I reached Burujird on November 23, experiencing severe Burujird weather for two days on the high-lying country between. On (58 miles from each day there was quite a blizzard of violently-driven fine frozen Sultanabad). snow particles, which smartingly pricked and half blinded men and animals, and made progress slow and difficult. The high country beyond Sultanabad, stretching up to the ridge of the range (8,000 feet) dividing its district from that of Burujird, is well cultivated in wheat and barley for the Tehran market. This cultivation is carried along the hill slopes, and right over the summits of the rounded hills, which are almost all covered with rich soil, no rock showing. Cultivation here is said to have largely increased of late years.

Mr. Brown accompanied me to Burujird, in order to be presented to the Governor as a merchant desirous of establishing trade relations, and dealing specially in almonds, which are produced in great abundance there. From Burujird he proceeded to Kermanshah, looking up on the way certain district trade centres,

where he is known to the people.

The Governor of Burnjird, Mirza Hussein Khan, impresses one favourably. He stated his desire to encourage and foster He asked much of Mr. Macqueen regarding the coming cart-road, and showed a lively interest in it, and a full appreciation of the fact that when the proposed lines are completed Burujird will become a very important commercial centre for Ispahan and Irak.

I saw here, for the first time, large herds of small black cattle, which, with the usual great flocks of sheep, find good grazing on the extensive Burujird plain. This plain is little cultivated, but is rich in pasture, and, having abundance of water, it shows grand

agricultural capabilities.

We reached Khoremabad on November 27. On that day's Khoremabad journey we fell in with many camps of the Sagwand Lurs, (60 miles from migrating to their winter pasture-grounds in the west, on the banks of the Kerkha, and when near Khoremabad we met a regiment of Persian infantry, straggling, as usual, over several miles of road, with their useful little donkeys carrying, in addition to tents, bedding, and provisions, everything that the soldier should himself carry. The commanding officer, who was far in the rear, told me that the troops had all been sent out to collect the taxes, and I afterwards heard that the migrating Lurs we had seen were caught, with their herds, flocks, and families, and the Government demands not being satisfied, distress ensued.

The Zahir-ud-Dowleh, Governor of Khoremabad, had only been in power about six weeks. He is of pleasing manner and appearance, and is generally believed to be a promising, strong ruler. His predecessor, the Nazim-ul-Khilvat, was said to have

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allowed the Lurs to get out of hand, so that, to vindicate authority, the Zahir-ud-Dowleh found himself called upon at once to act in a sternly severe manner.

Road to Dizful.

I had heard that the road between Khoremabad and Dizful had been put in some sort of repair, the very bad bits over the difficult passes being cleared of boulders and made somewhat easy, serais built, a telegraph line erected, and road guards established. We found but three serais, one of them within six miles of Khoremabad; there is a fourth half finished, and its state pointed to a very sudden abandonment of the work, things being left just as if the men had broken off at mid-day for food and rest.

The Dirikvend Lurs, in whose charge the greater part of the road is said to be, were in a restless, suspicious mood. chief, Mir Haji Khan, who had been directed to meet me, and who apparently had intended to do so, failed at the last moment to come. His nephew, Mir Namdar Khan, who is at emnity with him, and claims a division of authority in the tribe, made his appearance, and tried, by suggesting danger and difficulty, to make a show of good service rendered, with the view of a reward

being given.

At Chemeshk, the second stage, there were two Lur musketeers for the serai guard, and at the third stage, Kala Nasiri, there was a detachment of 10 gunners with two Utchatius mountain guns, without mules, and we were told of 25 Lur musketeers, but only a very few of these were present. a telegraph station there, and a signaller. At the fifth stage, Birinjzar, the foundations of a serai have been laid, and there is a telegraph station, but no building for it. The signaller lives in a poor tent, and his whole establishment for care of the place, and protection and repair of the line, consists of one Lur.

Telegraph line.

Throughout the Luristan Hill road the telegraph posts are totally unfit for the purpose, being short, thin, weak, and bent, so that the wire in many places could not be tightly stretched. The line was down at several points, and the only communication was through the post foot messenger, who passes between Khoremabad and Dizful once a week, travelling by stiff short cuts, and doing

the distance in three days.

It was said that the wire had been mischievously cut and the posts thrown down by the Lurs, but I saw that the damage was done by the laden cows and bullocks used by them in their annual migration, coming in contact with short thin poles which had been planted in shallow holes, and propped up with stones, but not piled high enough to keep cattle off. Probably when the wire was found under foot, the temptation to cut a bit off was too great for the passing Lurs to resist. These people are so miserably poor that, unable to obtain food grains in sufficient quantity, they live largely upon the acorns which are abundantly produced on the dwarf oaks of their native hills.

Transport difficulties.

Owing to the lateness of the season, and rumours of Lur disturbances, we were unable to hire mules to carry the eight days' supply of provisions, grain and fodder required for the

journey to Dizful at less than three times the ordinary rates of elsewhere. We thus learnt one of the causes for this route benig little used by traders, and then only by a few occasionally bringing on to Khoremabad and its vicinity small consignments of goods purchased below when the market is glutted with imported

wares, and prices fall unusually low.

As to the danger to caravans in passing through these hills. I Lurs am inclined to believe that the Lurs are now content to abandon robbery with violence in favour of payments and contributions from timid traders and travellers. They hang upon the rear of a caravan; an accident, a fallen or strayed pack animal, or stragglers in difficulty bring them to the spot, and, on the pretence of assistance given, a demand is made for money, in lieu of which, on fear or hesitation being shown, they obtain such articles as they take a fancy to. In this manner they took garments from two of our followers who were far behind, but on the alarm being given, and reprisal made by capture of a mare belonging to one of the Lur party, the stolen things were amicably returned.

The tribes through whose limits the road runs have annual allowances for protecting it, but it is a question whether these are regularly paid. It can hardly be expected that the same system of deferred and reduced payments, which unfortunately prevails in the Persian public service, should be accepted patiently by a starving people, who have long been given to predatory habits, and this may account for occasional disturbance. They probably find it difficult to understand why payment of taxes should be mercilessly exacted from them, while their allowances remain unpaid. It is generally believed that they would take readily to work if fairly treated and honestly paid, and I was told that for the construction of the proposed cart-road there would be no difficulty in getting labourers from the neighbouring Lur tribes.

Very little has been done to improve the road in Luristan along which we travelled. Attempts have been made here and there to clear and build up the track, but all has been done piecemeal, and without relation to any regular plan. Undoubtedly the track along which the telegraph line passes would never be adopted for a commercial cart-road. From the Khoremabad side the ascents are steep and stiff, and on the other the descents are too deep and difficult to allow of a cart-road being made, except

at very great cost.

But we had favourable accounts of what is known as the Probable line "chul" route, which turns the high ranges, and joins the existing for cart road mule track about 30 miles from Dizful. There are said to be but few rough rises on this route, and the wheeled artillery I saw at Ahwaz, two 9-pounder field pieces, were stated to have been brought along it without much difficulty. It is used for mules laden with large and inconveniently sized loads. Mr. Macqueen also learnt that a continuation of this chul route to join the track passing from Dizful to Kermanshah, about 20 miles up, would give a still further improvement. This route altogether would probably make about 50 or 60 miles more than the direct road

between Khoremabad and Dizful. It will now be thoroughly examined by Mr. Macqueen on his return journey. It is said to pass through good pasture lands, and ground favourable for cultivation and settlement purposes, the grant of which to a certain extent round about the caravanseral stations is one of the advantages secured in the road concession. It is believed that with liberal treatment the nomad Lurs may be induced to locate themselves round the serais, and take to agriculture as well as road work.

Dizful (157 miles from Khoremabad).

We reached Dizful on December 7. The very ancient Dizful bridge over the Diz stream was broken last year by a high flood, but has been temporarily repaired to allow of free traffic to the town. The caravan trade with Amarah, on the Tigris (by four long stages), is still carried on notwithstanding Turkish customs troubles, but it is gradually falling away to Mohamrah. At present the export of wheat is prohibited, but this was said to be merely temporary and precautionary against the possibility of winter crop failure, the usual rain being then overdue. rain, however, fell during my stay there, and doubtless the prohibition has been removed. Mr. Holland, Messrs. Lynch's agent at Shuster, informed me of his wheat purchases having been temporarily stopped, but he expected an early return to free market operations. I learnt from others that wheat cultivation has largely extended between Dizful and Shuster and in the vicinity. In fact, one informant stated the increase this season to be tenfold. The old indigo industry of Dizful continues to be carried on, and the dye is largely exported to the north of Persia.

I left Dizful on December 10. Halting that day at Kovnek, I was met by Khoda Karm Khan, Bakhtiari, a relative of the Ilbegi, Isfendiar Khan, who is posted there with 100 Bakhtiari horsemen to guard the road, and be ready for service on the neighbouring Turkish border. He came about 4 miles with his men to meet me. I was struck with the good appearance of the troop—men and horses. I was also met here by Naval Sartip Ahmad Khan, of the "Persepolis," then lying at Mohamrah, the only vessel of war belonging to Persia. The Sartip remained

with me during my stay in Arabistan.

Shuster Dizful, about Tehran).

I reached Shuster on December 11, and stayed there four (36 miles from days. The Governor, the Nizam-us-Sultaneh, made me thoroughly 480 miles from welcome, and I was treated everywhere, under his orders, in the most complimentary and hospitable manner. This was equally the case at Burujird, Khoremabad, and elsewhere throughout my journey.

The Nizam-us-Sultaneh is said to be an able ruler.

Valerian's bridge.

Shuster has suffered heavily by the break in its ancient bridge, known as Valerian's. Several of its arches were carried away by an unusually high flood in the spring of 1885, and the bank on which the bridge rested was burst. The water-level being thus lowered by the river flowing through the break, the Miyan-ab canal on the left bank was emptied, and the large tract of fertile land south of Shuster being deprived of its irrigation, became, and continues to remain, untilled. This has caused an annual loss of 4,000 tomans in taxes. The loss of this canal irrigation has told heavily upon the population of the place, the great majority of whom depended for their living on the irrigated area. A large number of the inhabitants emigrated into neighbouring Turkish territory, where watered lands were available. The Governor told me that he considers Shuster to be now held together as a town mainly by the presence of the troops and the people connected with them, and the Government, whose wants create a demand which employs the inhabitants and enables them to live.

Ihtisham-us-Sultaneh, then Governor of Attempted 1886 the Arabistan, tried to repair the bridge. A weir was thrown across bridge. the river to turn it, and the bank and broken arches were partly rebuilt, but there was a fatal delay in completing the work, and the usual spring-time floods demolished all that had been done. The present Governor then made the attempt in 1888. A weir was again thrown across the stream, and therebuilding commenced, but he does not appear to have got as far in the work as his predecessor; at all events, the arches were not reached. The bricks and cement, still piled in great heaps on the unbroken part of the bridge towards the town, show that they were preparing for the brick arching when the spring floods again overtook them and swept away the new erections. Want of energy in prosecuting the work when once begun appears to have wrecked all on each occasion.

The Nizam-us-Sultaneh is strongly of opinion that Ahwaz Seat of should be made the seat of Government. He said that there the Governor would be in closer touch with the rich and important districts of Howizah on the west, Janiki and Ram Harmuz on the east, and Mohamrah in the south, whereas at Shuster he is too far off for quick and satisfactory work.

The Ab-i-Boleiti, or Ab-i-Gargar, and the Karun, or Steamer com-Ab-i-Shateit, are navigated by steamers to within 6 and 12 miles munication with Ahwaz. respectively of Shuster. The "Susa," a steel launch of 20 tons, belonging to the Persian war-vessel "Persepolis," runs on the former, and the "Shushan," of 30 tons, a stern-wheeler (Nileboat pattern), presented by Messrs. Lynch to the Shah, plies on the latter. Both of these run regularly with cargo and passengers between Ahwaz and Shuster, and do the distance (about 60 miles) in 9 or 10 hours down, a little longer up. The "Susa's" smaller size enables her to navigate the short, sharp turns of the tortuous Boleiti (Gargar), while the "Shushan" has to keep to the Shateit. It has now been found practicable to take the "Susa" to within 3 miles of Shuster.

I dropped down the Gargar on a skin raft and went on board the "Susa," which on the run down stopped at Band-i-Kir, the point of junction of three streams, the two already mentioned, and the Diz.

A well-built small serai, with telegraph office and guard Band-i-Kir. accommodation, is now being completed there, standing between

the Shateit and Boleiti (Gargar) and close to the large village of. Band-i-Kir. From its roof I had a good view of the flat country all round, and the dense jungles on the banks of the three These thickets are said to be full of large and small game, including the maneless lion, spotted deer, bog, and francolin partridge. The lion is described as of skulking, cowardly habits, and unequal to the African animal in size and fine appearance.

Shus'er petroleum.

I observe great patches of oil-smooth water floating down the Karun from the Shateit branch. These were oil-spreads from the petroleum springs near Shuster, which always give a large overflow after much rain. There had been a heavy fall a few days before, followed by the usual flush into the river, which Captain Plant, of the "Shushan," told me he had found at many places smelling strongly of petroleum.

Ahwaz (60 from Shuster).

I reached Ahwaz on the 16th, slept on board the "Susa," and miles by river landed next morning. I was received by the Arab Sheikh of the village of Ahwaz, attended by a mounted following, and was also met by mounted officers of the Faridan regiment of infantry, who conducted me to their camp, where, after tea and pipes, the regiment marched past. The men were neatly dressed in grey, looked well fed, and altogether made a good show. The Sartip of the corps, Haji Mustafa Khan, is a well-to-do landowner of Chadagan, an elevated, well watered, fertile tract in the Faridan district. near Ispahan. He exercises civil charge as well as military command at Ahwaz, and is assisted by a Karguzar. He keeps up good style and lives in camp with his men. with their donkeys (almost every Persian infantry soldier has a donkey) find remunerative enployment in transporting goods between the steamer landing-places below and above the rapids, and in the building work now going on.

Good barracks have been built for the artillery and two companies of infantry, immediately under a well-planned Govern-

ment house, with telegraph and other offices attached.

Covernment House.

This building is commandingly situated on the highest part of the river bank between the upper and lower landing-places. It has upper rooms, from the roof of which flies the Persian flag. The rest of the infantry occupy a well-pitched camp on the slope

from Government House along the river bank.

Manyin ut-Tujjar.

At Ahwaz I met Haja Mahomad, the Muayin-ut-Tujjar of Bushire, who is the representative partner of the Nasiri Company, a trading corporation of Persians, who own the tramway, the uncultivated land along the outside of it to a depth of 111 yards, and the lower half of the ground between the river and the tramway, the Persian Government holding the upper half. The new Government House has been built on the company's land, but I understand that a further grant of ground at the upper or lower landing-places will be given in compensation.

Caravanserai and tramway.

The Muayin-ut-Tujjar is at present the moving spirit of private enterprise at Ahwaz. Seven months ago he commenced building a caravanserai, which is now finished, in as far as it is fit

for comfortable occupation. It is commodious and most conveniently situated on the river bank at the lower landing-place. It has good rooms, large and small. On the outside faces, front and rear, are other quarters, one row of which, along with those in the deep gateway, are occupied by shop-keepers, butcher, baker, coffee-house, carpenter, &c., and grocery and general goods stores, all brought here and established in business by the Muayin. is now engaged in constructing a tramway 3 feet wide, of light steel rails, laid on sleepers cut in the Karun jungles. The line runs from the river bank at the caravanserai to the landing-place above the rapids, with a short connection into the serai. length is 2,400 yards. A storage-room and shelter-shed are being built at the lower end, and there will be the same at the farther end. The track has been laid out, and a portion of the way made. About 150 yards of rail had been laid when I was there, and the work is being carried on steadily. A river face wall is being built behind the serai where native craft lie, and the intention is to use the tramway at once for removal of material from its cuttings and vicinity with which to fill in and level up the hollow ground between the serai and the embankment.

The permanent way of the tram line is simply rammed earth, the sleepers being laid on this at intervals of 2½ feet, the spaces between to be filled up with broken brick and stone. The mistake of not ramming the earth over a packing of stone beneath was pointed out to the Muayin. There is an abundance of stone all about, much of it in the form of cut and hewn blocks, remains of ancient Ahwaz. The river face wall is being largely constructed of these blocks and of great sections of circular pillars. These pillar pieces have all a hole in the centre, evidently originally made to allow of a stout pole being passed through, and dragropes used in rolling them along. They are now dug out of the ruins by Arabs and soldiers, who use their donkeys in wheeling them where required, in probably the same manner as was

practised some 1,500 years ago.

From the numbers of fallen pillars now lying just as they fell Ruins: on the banks of the old irrigation canal which ran out of the Old canal. Karun close above the rapids, and the remains of a bridge there, it would appear as if buildings with colonades had stood on each side the bridge connecting. I saw no carving on any of the stones or pillars. The line of the great canal is clearly visible leading away south, and I was told that it passed to Felahiah, about 40 miles distant, where it joined a stream flowing to the sea, or a canal passing into the Karun. Colonel Bell observed this canal indication, and was led to suppose that it might have been a navigating one used in the old Ahwaz days to turn the rapids and the dam. But, as explained in his report, he was unable to examine the ground as closely as he desired. I had full opportunity of doing this, and judged from its appearance that a channel could easily be cut from the old canal-bed to the river below rapid No. 4, and so make a navigrating canal, about 1,600 yards in length, with a comparatively

easy fall. Thence, an inshore channel down stream could be made as suggested by Colonel Bell, or one that now exists opposite, close under the island, could be used, as is done at present, by large boats which are worked slowly up through and past the rapids. I saw a boat of 20 tons being thus taken up in December when the river was very low. But in the meanwhile, and for some time to come, the tramway may be expected to suffice for all traffic purposes.

Transport of goods past the rapids at Ahwaz.

Trade.

The land transport of goods past the rapids between the upper and lower waters is now effected quickly and comparatively cheaply, owing to competition between the Arabs and the soldiers. The Arabs come readily to work at Ahwaz, but very few were so engaged when I was there, as, heavy rain having

fallen, all were busy with the winter sowings.

The opening of the Karun has already had a marked effect on the well-being of the Arab population. Labour at 1 kran (8d.) a day has put many in the space of a year in possession of sufficient capital to buy a pair of donkeys and a plough (donkeys do most of the plough work in Arabistan), and seed corn wherewith to cultivate Government lands on their own account, besides leaving a small balance in hand with which to live, without having to borrow at robbery rates on the coming crop. The Sheikhs, who before had a full command of labour in return for little more than the simplest food, now find this condition of things rapidly changing, so many of the very poor who depended on them having started as small farmers. It was a sight to see the whole Arab population on the river banks hard at work taking advantage of the copious rain which had just fallen; every available animal fit for draught was yoked to the plough—horses, mules, bullocks, and donkeys, and even mares with their foals following them up the furrows.

The land tax is light, and every encouragement appears to be

given to cultivators.

Nasiri Company. The Nasiri Company has a small steamer, the "Nasiri," plying on the Lower Karun, and it evidently runs in connection with the "Susa" on the upper stream. The "Nasiri" is principally used as a tug, taking two Arab boats of about 27 tons each lashed alongside her. It is now intended to transfer this steamer to the upper stream, passing her up the rapids at next spring floods; the "Karun," a steam-launch of about 60 tons, belonging to Sheikh Mizal, Governor of Mohamrah, taking the "Nasiri's" place below. Arrangements are also being made for a second steamer to run for the Nasiri Company on the lower stream.

Sheikh Mizal, Governor of Mohamrah. Sheikh Mizal is exceedingly wealthy, both by inheritance of lands, flocks, and herds, and subsequent increase of material prosperity. He exercises great personal influence in Arabistan along the left bank of the Karun, from the sea to Wais, above Ahwaz. He now appears to be moving with the times, and to be well inclined towards trade and traffic on the Karun. The fact of his steamer being about to ply on the river, and to carry for the Nasiri Company, indicates his joining it, and this, with the

strong support which the company appears to have from Government quarters, cannot fail to make the combination a strong one.

The company is now proposing to build a caravanserai on the right bank of the river, opposite that on the left bank at Ahwaz, where already a large village, inhabited by Arabs attracted by trade, has sprung up. This serai is intended for the export and import trade of Howizah (45 miles to the west), a prosperous town and fertile district, producing both wheat and rice. By storing, loading, and unloading there the present labour

of carrying by boat across the stream will be avoided.

A large trade in wheat is coming on, Messrs. Lynch last year Trade, export exporting 2,000 tons. Rice, oil-seed, and cotton may soon be and import. largely added; wool also, but it is said to be rather coarse. The Arab traders also carry down large quantities of wheat, oil-seed, &c., which all go to Busrah, thus entailing Turkish customs duty in addition to Persian. This means a total of over 13 per cent. export duty on native-owned grain. In answer to this growing trade in the Karun Valley, and the improving circumstances of the people, there is an increasing import of English and Indian cotton goods, and of sugar. The sugar is French loaf, which, owing to its low price, is pushing its way as far north as Sultanabad. At Linga, in the Persian Gulf, this sugar in the present month was selling at 21d. per lb.

The British India steamers call regularly at Mohamrah to give and take mails, but irregularly as yet for cargo, so Busrah still continues to be the export market for grain from the Karun. But the Persian Government is now paying closer attention to Mohamrah, and a grain bazaar may soon be established there. The Muayin-ut-Tujjar has had this pointed out to him as not only what is wanted to make that excellent port a regular one of shipment, and so give a strong impetus to Karun trade, but as in itself certain to be a good paying business in market fees.

I voyaged down from Ahwaz in Messrs. Lynch's steamer, the Messrs. "Blosse Lynch," a fine river boat of 300 tons, 100 horse-power Lynch's river in two separate engines of 50 horse-power each. She has two steamer. decks, 225 feet long by 45 feet beam. Leaving Ahwaz at 6.30 A.M., Mohamrah was reached at 5 P.M. At Kajuriya, about 45 miles down, on the right bank, a telegraph office is in course of completion, with quarters for a military guard.

All the material for a telegraph line from Mohamrah to Arabistan Ahwaz has been collected and distributed, and construction is telegraph about to commence. The poles are all from Zanzibar. The line

from Ahwaz to Shuster and Dizful is in good working order.

At Mohamrah I was accommodated in the new Government Mohamrah House at the "Point" where the Karun joins the Shat-el-Arab, (about 110 a little below the town. This building is just being completed. Ahwaz. It is two storied, with excellent offices, and is well and prominently situated, looking down the main stream. Opposite are neat artillery and infantry barracks. All appear well built, and they certainly make a good show. All these buildings have been constructed by Mirza Bazurg Khan, the eldest of three brothers,

inhabitants of Shuster, and belonging to a family well known there for many generations. Bazurg Khan was also designer and builder of the Ahwaz public buildings. His second brother is Karguzar there, and the third is in a similar position at Shuster.

Mr. McDouall, the Vice-Consul at Mohamrah, is at present occupying a house in the town, a place with most unsavoury and insanitary surroundings, but there is every prospect of the Persian Government soon building him a residence at the Point, close to the Government House I have mentioned.

Mr. Richards, agent for Messrs. Lynch, is the only other European resident at Mohamrah as yet. His place of abode in the

town is as unfavourably situated as Mr. McDouall's.

Houses and offices for Mesara. Lynch's agents on the Karun.

Messrs. Lynch appear to be content at present with the most uncomfortable quarters for their European agents at Mohamrah, Ahwaz, and Shuster. At the latter place the Governor indicated a good site on open ground near the river and his fort residence, where he proposed to build a house with offices for Messrs. Lynch, and said that the only delay in commencement was non-receipt from them of the plans and specifica-He also stated that for the same reason he was prevented building for them at Ahwaz. I found Mr. Gaskin, their agent there, occupying a temporary dwelling and store-shed constructed of poles, matting, and reeds, most uncomfortable in every way, which had been built for him by the local government, and for which the unreasonable rent of 50 tomans a-month (161.) is charged. The whole could scarcely have cost 200 tomans, even at the very highest prices for material which at first prevailed there. The rent is handed over by him to the "Susa" for the running expenses of the boat. The matter of this wretched construction and its absurdly high rent formed the subject of strong complaint by Messrs. Lynch, but I am bound to state that the Governor, in alluding to it, said the rent was fixed for a very temporary makeshift to be occupied but a short time, pending the building of a good house and offices, for the plans of which he was still waiting. attributed the whole delay to Messrs. Lynch, and requested me to make this known.

Agricultural resources : Karun.

The agricultural resources of the Karun are likely to be developed with the aid of foreign capital soon. I heard of several individuals and parties trying to obtain long leases of land on the banks of the river for the cultivation of sugar-cane, cereals, cotton, and the date palm. The point on which a difficulty is experienced is a sufficiently long period of lease, 60 years being asked and 20 Eventually I have no doubt concessions will be given to Persian subjects, and sold in part to the present applicants.

Rumoured Ahwaz dam

The concession for rebuilding the Ahwaz dam, and reopening concession for the great irrigation canals on both sides of the river there, which was believed to have been granted to a French gentleman, appears and irrigation to have lapsed or been dropped. The estimated initial outlay for the works was said to be 180,000 tomans (about 60,000L), and a further large sum was required for agricultural operations.

The capabilities of the Lower Karun lands for date cultivation Date trade are great, and are sure to attract planters soon. The date supply and cultivakeeps increasing year by year, and so does the demand: 60,000 tion. tons were exported last season from Busrah in ocean steamers and coasting craft, 20,000 tons being sent out in boxes, the material for which, in the form of 7,000 tons of cut lengths of wood, with nails, oiled paper for inside wrapping, and iron hooping for outside binding, all prepared for easy putting together, was imported from England and elsewhere. The palm-leaf itself formed woven bag and basket package coverings for 40,000 tons.

An acre of ground holds 100 trees. They bear fruit at five years, and reach full fruition at seven. In a fairly good season a tree in full bearing gives an average profit of 3 rupees, at which rate the acre would return 201. a year. While the trees are growing up, the ground, with the irrigation which they require, yields a crop of wheat, clover, or grass, and later can be managed to afford pasture, there being but little heavy shade thrown by

the feathery foliage above.

I was informed that the Sheikh Mizal of Mohamrah has lately Increase planted about 30,000 trees, and that the total late increase of of date young date palms on Persian soil amounts to nearly 60,000. remember the Amin-es-Sultan mentioned at Tehran, last spring, that encouragement was being given by Government to date palm cultivation in Arabistan, and what I heard at Mohamrah would seem to bear this out.

It was interesting to hear of 160 varieties of dates said to be Many varieties distinguishable in these palm districts by the native growers, by of dates. some difference or peculiarity in fruit or stone, leaf or stem. The Arabs pay close attention to conditions of climate, soil, water, and

place, so as to cultivate the date to the best advantage.

I have given the profit on date cultivation in rupees, as my Indian rupee informant spoke of it in that coin. This is explained by the fact current in that the Indian rupee is current all over Arabistan. It is taken Arabistan. and asked for in preference to Persian krans, which there are all of the old currency, and the Arabs state as the reason of their preference that a bad rupee is seldom seen, whereas they find

many false coins among the krans.

I have alluded to the Nasiri Company as developing into a The Nasiri strong rival of the Messrs. Lynch in Karun navigation. It is company a believed that the company has a good backing at Tehran. Mr. rival of Me-are. Taylor, the manager of the Messrs. Lynch's Karun business, is Lynch's. well aware of the growing strength of the Nasiri Company, and it is said that efforts and offers have been made by the Muayinut-Tujjar towards amalgamation with Messrs. Lynch. But the point at issue is control. Mr. Taylor very wisely objects to any arrangement which does not give him, for Messrs. Lynch, full working control.

It is to be hoped that the partnership may be effected, and Combined that, eventually, the new Road Company may join to make one road and river

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company

combined transport service, river and road, from Mohamrah to Tehran.

Through bills of lading.

And the finishing touch towards success may be given by sanction to through bills of lading from foreign countries to Ahwah and Shuster.

I was two days at Mohamrah, during which I paid a visit to, and received a visit from, the Governor, whose official title is the Muazziz-i-Sultan, but who is better known as the Sheikh Mizal. He is a man of handsome appearance and singularly good manner. He is the only powerful Arab chief now left in Arabistan: all have been broken but him. Intrigues by rival relations, set up at the instance of the Government, and resulting in feuds and factions, have made an end of the others as regards both their wealth and power. Sheikh Mizal alone remains with the appearance of strength, and his possessions untouched, notwithstanding the long-continued plotting of his elder brother. Mizal was preferred by the father to the elder son as his heir and successor, and the latter, while Arabistan was one of the provinces under the Zil-es-Sultan, resided at Ispahan, the better to plot and plan the ruin of his younger brother. He has now ceased to attempt trouble.

New cart-road.

I introduced Mr. Macqueen to all the governors as we passed down, and explained fully concerning the proposed cart-road, of which he is chief engineer. They all expressed interest in the project, and promised their best aid to Mr. Macqueen. The Amines-Sultan had also provided Mr. Macqueen with a letter of recommendation, which was shown with good effect. There can be no doubt of the difficulty which will be experienced in making the proposed road at small cost. From the first there seems to have been an idea that it could be made, the whole length of 500 miles, at an average of 201. a mile. At least this is what I have understood the syndicate believed would suffice to construct a road fit for laden carts. Perhaps the idea was the outcome of a report that such an estimate had actually been made a few years ago. so, a mistake has been made in supposing that a commercial cart-There is a vast difference between a cart-road road was meant. for use in a campaign and one to be a permanent highway. former may be very rough, with steep gradients and frequent undulations, and yet, with the organised help which accompanies convoys and military trains, carts can always pass along. permanent cart-road requires curves, cuttings, embankments, bridges, and easy gradients, so that carts may roll along without difficulty, for otherwise there can be no real economy in their use. And this specially applies in Persia, where the mules are so good for pack purposes, and the horses generally so inferior for heavy draught.

The existing road between Sultanabad and Burujird, and on to Khoremabad, presents no very great difficulty; but to be made well passable for carts will entail considerable expense in securing an easy line over the intervening ranges. I have already explained that for cart traffic between Khoremabad and Dizful the present track is impossible of adaptation, and a new line must be

found and followed.

The Dizful bridge can be repaired to make it fit for carts, but Newcart-road. there will be some difficulty in getting beyond the town end of the Dizful. bridge without expense in buying houses to remove and clear a

way for the road.

The repair of the Shuster bridge is far too big a work to be The Shuster considered at present. In fact, it would seem that the bridging of crossing. the river there should wait till a railway brings up the material. Meanwhile, a bridge of boats for eight months in the year, or a well-organised ferry service should suffice to connect with the town; and for Ahwaz and Mohamrah, the new road may be carried down the right bank (avoiding all crossing) to the steamer landing-place. A strong combined road and river company would probably go to the expense of improving the Shateit channels at the one or two places where this is required to make them free and sufficiently full when the stream is at its lowest, and also to allow of the steamers passing right up to Shuster.

The road concession binds to the construction of a cart-road Cart-road the whole way through, and there is now left of the period within Modification which it is to be completed less than two years. Much has yet to suggested. be done even in lining out the road, and a great deal in the way of caravanserai building. It would be of great advantage to the company, I think, if the concession could be modified so as to allow of a good mule track, one easy for mule litters to pass along, being substituted part of the distance for a cart-road, the track to be eventually improved and converted into a carriage-road.

The company would also consult its interests in economy and Early appointment efficiency by the early appointment of a traffic manager. Expe- of traffic rience would be gained on the short sections, which could be manager profitably applied as the road extended. To leave this matter to advisable. a later period may, moreover, lead to others in the meantime stepping in with a rival transport service, for there is nothing in the concession to prevent this.

I observed the liquorice plant flourishing in great luxuriance Liquorice and abundance on the Burujird and Khoremabad plains and in the plant intervening valleys, and I heard of the plains at Kermanshah being similarly covered with it. I saw it again at Shuster, but not in plenty, and I was told there was not much of it lower down in the Karun valley. But Mr. Macqueen was to observe on his land journey up from Mohamrah, and is to let me know. The root is greatly in demand in America for use in preparation of quid tobacco and fancy drinks, but until the large supply in Asia Minor, available yet near railways and steamers, is exhausted, the cost of carriage from the localities I have mentioned would kill all chance of profit at present prices. The plant is found in some abundance near Korna, at the junction of the Euphrates and Tigris, and a French firm collects the root there, sending it by water to Busrah, to be baled in Messrs. Gray, Pauls' presses for export to Marseilles. The short distance from Korna to the port of sea shipment—40 miles—just makes the business pay, but comparatively little is done in it as yet.

I reached Busrah on Christmas Day, and left for Bushire on (1144)

December 27, arriving there on December 29. I left for Karachi on January 3, 1891.

Persian Gulf, January 9, 1891.

P.S.—At Ahwaz, on December 20, I met M. Allaverdiantz, a petroleum expert in the employ of the Persian Mines Company, on his way to examine the petroleum springs at Ram Hormuz and Shuster.

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### FOREIGN OFFICE.

1890.

## MISCELLANEOUS SERIES.

No. 181.

# REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

# RUSSIA.

#### REPORT ON

## THE RUSSO-CHINESE OVERLAND TRADE.

Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

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1890.

[C. 6206—1.]

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#### RUSSIA.

#### ST. PETERSBURG.

Mr. Gosling to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, St. Petersburg, August 6, 1890.

I HAVE the honour to enclose a Report drawn up by Mr. Cecil Gosling on the decline of the Overland Trade between Russia and China, which may possibly be of interest to your Lordship.

I have, &c.

(Signed) AUDLEY GOSLING.

Report on the Overland Trade of Russia with China for the Year 1889.

Articles have lately appeared in the Russian Press commenting on the decline of Russian trade with China, through Kiakhta, and endeavouring to show by what means its revival might best be effected.

The data on which the following remarks and statistics are based are principally from articles published in the "Moscow

Gazette," and the official organ of finance:-

The annual report of the merchants trading in Kiakhta shows a considerable falling-off in the returns of Russian trade with China during 1889, as compared with previous years, especially 1887 and 1888. It was in 1869 when the Suez Canal was opened, and Europe enabled to send her merchandise to India, China, and Japan, by a shorter and cheaper route than round the Cape, that this falling-off of Russian trade first became apparent.

The new route was intended to benefit all the maritime States of Europe, but, in point of fact, it is alleged only a few were able to take advantage of it, and these few, the Kiakhta merchants say, have pushed their trade to the very north of China, to the

exclusion of that of Russia.

In 1889 the total value of goods exported to China via Kinkhta amounted to about 3,000,000 r., and of precious metals 1,000,000 r.

(973)

The value of Russian goods alone was only 1,085,140 r., and this is about 30 times less than the annual value of such goods exported previous to 1869. The falling-off, as compared with the general exports of the last four years, will be found hereunder:—

		1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
		Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.
Ruesian goods		1,855,573	1,553,984	2,853,502	2,374,760	1.085,144
Foreign ,,		221,442	212,585	251,914	819,698	265,771
Precious metals		2,386,989	2,273,092	2,924,085	2,119,193	1,618,681
Paper roubles	••	110,070	234,931	809,860	409,617	273,696
Total		4,574,074	4,274,592	5,889,301	5,223,263	3,243,292

As compared with 1888 the whole export trade has diminished, but especially so in regard to Russian goods, of which only half the amount of the previous year was exported. The decrease in the trade of Russian goods is visible from the following table:—

		,	,		1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
Food production Raw and hall	f man	ufactur	ed prod		Roubles. 59.341 84,738 984,242	Roubles. 43,690 179,420 1,786,600	Roubles 21,623 135,501 1,937,068	Roubles. 14,867 124,520 669,288
Fars	•••	••	••	••	425,648	848,792	280,174	276,478
Total	••	.•	••	••	1,558,502	2,853,502	2,374,761	1,085,148

The value of the exportation of food products as compared, with 1888 is less by 6,700 r., and, compared with 1887, the falling-off is nearly threefold. No figures are given for the export of grain in the report for 1889, but in the three preceding years this item of trade held an important place, as the figures here-under would show:—

			1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
			Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.
Wheat.		• •	15,770	18,550	8,100	••
Flour	• •	••	11,160	2,120	20	١
Rye flour		!	17,210	2,650	90	

The decrease in the export of raw and half-manufactured products amounted to 10,980 r. The principal articles exported under this heading were: antelope horns, value 59,510 r.; roebuck horns, value 43,330 r.; and musk of deer, value 18,970 r.

The export of manufactured goods has decreased in 1889 to one-third of its value in 1888, as it appears from the following

figures:--

	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.
Velveteen	333,190	539,830	753,300	206,080
Moleskin	1,090	6.840	6.410	520
Cotton cloth	3,350	3,660	14,770	2,680
Tick cloth			55,000	8,680
Plush			2,690	
Broad cloth	298,400	695,930	687,590	240,550
Sheep's wool			5,500	•
Russia leather	199,280	810,180	814,270	165,670
Tinsel	44,630	89,860	45,080	15,220
Morocco leather .	28,490	41,120	9,000	70
Goat leather .	28,460	25,220	47,170	17,850
Mirrors		••	82,670	2,230
Brass pans and tea			,	_,,
urns	4,430	6,690	7,040	5,720
Writing paper	1 '	4,070	1,500	450

The fur trade in 1889 shows a considerable decrease as compared with 1886-87.

				1886.	1887.	1888.	. 1889.
				Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles
Squirrel				51,212	90,272	9,728 · ·	l
Lynx, Arci	ic fox	and fo	х	189,184	110,786	146,168	185,583
Arctic fox				38,925	68,826	57,105	87,968
Lambakin		•••		65,559	39,183	7,200	6,560
Russian lyr	ıx	••	•••	3,116	16,764	15,284	16,840
Cat	•••	••		<b>52,2</b> 98	12,850	14,640	2,833
Ermine				5,785	4,386	1,298	8,286
Beaver					1	15,179	1
Otter	••	• •		••		2,340	1
Musk rat	•••	•••		••		7,858	
Arctic fox	••	••		••			18,269
Total				406,079	842,997	276,750	276,889

The total value of Chinese exports (consisting of rice, sugar, silk, and rhubarb) to the Russian dominions, viâ Kiakhta, amounted in 1889 to about 14,000,000 r. against 19,000,000 r. in 1888. Compared with 1887 the falling-off is still more apparent, as the value of these exports amounted then to nearly 25,000,000 r.

The decrease in the export of Chinese goods to Russia will be seen from the following statement:—

	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
Chinese goods Mongolian ,, Russian paper money Chinese goods brought to	Roubles. 16,878,140 167,910 512,467	Roubles. 24,179,117 269,778 476,192	Roubles. 16,d31,578 169,030 905,457	Roubles. 11,920,585 178,270 683,579
Siberia and other parts of Russo-Chinese frontier	1,780,782	1,531,475	1,811,354	1,847,823
Tetal	19,884,249	26,456,557	19,517,419	14,630,257

The following table shows in detail the export trade in Chinese and Mongolian goods during the last four years, and the gradual decrease of that trade since 1886:—

		Food Products.	Raw and Half-Manu- factured Products.	Manu- factured.	Various.	Totals.
Chinese goods -	-	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.
1000		16,789,484	1.787	1,162	50,707	16,873,140
1887		24,108,538	1,285	8,289	61,010	24,179,117
1888		16,501,812	22,856	22,881	84,209	16,681,578
1889		11,876,950	1,835	6,881	35,419	11,920,585
Mongolian good	s				·	
1886		57,102	100,588	2,056	8.874	167,910
1887		42,082	221,892	1,340	4,959	269,773
1888		88,096	165,180	974	8,854	208,104
1889		44,263	128,390	1,699	8,918	178,270

It will be noticed that the values of the trade under the heading of food products is far in excess of that of other classes of goods. The following table shows the values of the food products brought by the Chinese to Kiakhta during 1889 as compared with the three preceding years:—

			1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
Tee			Roubles. 16,759,660	Reables. 24,050,020	Roubles. 1,646,290	Roubles. 11,818,750
Raw sugar	••	• • •	80.889	49,974	85,472	57,869
Refined sugar	••	• • •	182	291		
Fruits	• •	• •	1,278	990	50	154
Total			167,914,409	24,095,275	1,681,812	11,876,278

The chief imports to Kiakhta from Mongolia in 1889 consisted of horned cattle, the value of which amounted to 36,400 r. as against 28,590 r. in 1880; sheep to the value of 5,440 r. as against 6,860 r. in 1888; and of butter to the value of 2,420 r. against 2,630 r. in 1888.

Under the category of raw and semi-manufactured products brought from China to Kiakhta in 1889 were silk, value 1,330 r. against 1,140 r. in 1888, and 8,280 r. in 1887. The Mongolian goods of this class consisted of cattle, leather, and untanned horse hides. The value of the raw Mongolian products amounted to 125,960 r., and that of semi-manufactured goods to 2,420 r.

Of Chinese manufactured goods imported into Russia in 1899 the principal were cotton dolembi, to the value of 4,100 r. against 3,970 r. in 1888; and silk chesuchi, to the value of 2,100 r. in

1889, against 17,300 r. in 1888.

Furs from Thibet were brought to Kiakhta to the value of 17,240 r. in 1889 against 44,090 r. in 1888, squirrel tails to the value of 9,730 r., and equirrel skins to the amount of 8,250 r.

The value of the Chinese goods imported into the Transbaikal region to Irkutsk, and other parts of Siberia, was as hereunder:—

		1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
Tea Various goods		Roubles. 1,398,182 387,600	Roubles. 1,226,625 304,850	Roubles. 1,462,939 184,720	Roubles. 1,456,928 390,900
Total	••	1 780,782	1,531,475	1,597,659	T,847,828

In the Overland trade of the Chinese with Russia, in 1889, there was a large decrease, especially under the head of tea, only half the quantity of that merchandise having been brought in 1889 as compared with 1887.

According to the reports of the heads of Russian firms in Kiakhta, the following were the quantities of tea prepared and exported to Russia in 1889:—

					Chests.
Black brick tea	••	••	••		145,198
Ordinary " "	• •	••	••	••	12,411
Green ,	••	••	••		1,298
Pressed tablet tea		• •	••		11,666

In comparison with 1888 a considerable falling-off in the preduction of black pressed tea is also apparent; but this may be accounted for by the fact that in 1886, 1887, and 1888 unusually large quantities were prepared, while the demand for this article has now become less in the Russian markets.

The quantities of tea prepared and shipped by Russian firms during the last nine years are shown in the following tables.

From these tables it will be seen that up to 1885 the production of tea was more or less normal, but that during 1886, 1887, and 1888, 233,251 chests were prepared in excess of the three previous years. In 1889 the supply was greater than the demand in the Russian and Siberian markets.

				1881.	1882.	1888.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1,87.	1888.	1889.
Dist Dist				Chests.	Chests.	Chesta.	Chests.	Chests.	Chests.	Chesta.	Chests.	Chests.
Diack Drick 1ea Prepared at Hangkow, Foochow, and Kioukiang 12:	Fooch	ow, and E	Tioukian	g 122,731	128,347	185,714	123,048	151,709	221,437	216, 04	207,481	145,198
Prepared at Hangkow	and F	оосрож	:	12,548	18,688	18,997	11,806	0,870	9,670	9,279	13,294	12,411
Green Brick Tea.	:	:	• · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1,296	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Prepared at Hangkow	:	:		2,657	6,199	1,282	629	1,811	6,890	878	801	1,293
" "Foochow " Pressed Tablet Tes	:	:	·. :	: ·	450	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Prepared at Hangkow	:	:	· •	806	2,278	280	196	7.841	20,128	:	:	11,666
" Foochow	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1,155	:	:	:	:

	. 1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1884. 1886.	1886.	1836. 1887. 1888.	1888.	1889.
! !	Chesta	Chesta. Chesta.	Chests.	Chests.	Chests. Chests.	Chesta.	Chesta. Chesta. Chesta.	Chesta.	Chests.
Black Brick Tea— Sent to Tianzin, Nikolalevsk, Vladivostok, Ayan, Yokohama, and Shanghai	122.731	128,847	135,714	125,041	16:,709	221,437	216,804	207,481	145.198
Ordinary Brick Tea — Sent to Tianzin, Nikolaievsk, and Vladivostok	13,844	18,688	13,997 7,970	7,970	11,806			18,294	12,411
Pressed Tablet Tea.— Sent to Tianzin, Nikolaievsk, Vladivostok, Odessa, America, and Australia	2.278	00	580	796	7.841	91 988			11 148
					••••		•	:	2011.

As a considerable portion of the goods prepared for exportation by the Russian firms in China is now shipped via the Suez Canal to Odessa or London, the reason for the falling-off of trade

in Kiakhta is apparent.

The unsatisfactory state of the means of communication between Kiakhta and Russia, and other points of the Russo-Chinese frontier, would also in a great measure account for the diminution of trade at Kiakhta, especially since the opening of the Suez Canal.

Before the construction of this canal, the trade in even expensive Russian goods was profitable, owing to the comparatively short time which it took to convey them into China; but now such articles as cloth, cotton velvet, and cotton tissues of European manufacture have, owing to their cheapness, completely superseded similar Russian goods in the market.

The only portion of the trade which still remains absolutely

in the hands of Russia is the fur trade.

The Chinese, as wells as the Siberians, are unable to dress the furs, and they are, therefore, only sold in China after having been first cured in Russia.

The Chinese exports to Russia exceed those of Russia to China by about 10 times, and in the course of the last four years the balance of trade against Russia has amounted to no less than 70,000,000 r.

Russia does not export any of her produce to China by sea, either from Odessa or any other of her ports; while China, on the other hand, supplies Russia by sea with large quantities of her

produce, consisting for the most part of tea.

According to the report of the chief customs inspector of China, Chinese goods to the value of 1,951,290 r. were exported into Russia in 1887, and in 1888 their value amounted to

2,861,590 r.

The principal European goods imported into China consist of cotton stuffs, which represent about 36 per cent. of the whole of the foreign imports, and the demand for these goods is rapidly increasing. Thus in 1887 cotton goods to the value of 55,066,280 r. were exported, and in 1888 they increased to 6,290,430 r. Indeed China, with her population of over 400,000,000, offers so vast a market to the foreign manufacturer that it is impossible to say what proportions the demand for English and German goods may not attain.

The following table shows generally the value of Russian and

Chinese exports during the last four years:-

	Year.		Russian Exports to China.	Chinese Exports to Russia.
			Roubles.	Roub'es.
1886			1,553,984	18,821,782
1887	••	••	2,358,502	25,980,835
1888	••		2,374,760	18,650,242
1889	••	•••	1,085,144	13,946,678
Tota	1		7,867,890	77,899,067

Formerly the most important item of Russian trade with China was woollen cloths, but this has now been replaced by the cheaper cotton tissues, of which the amount exported in 1888 was valued at 822,200 r., while the total value of Russian exports to China was only 2,374,760 r. In 1889 the export of cotton goods was much less, amounting to only 217,940 r.

The "Moscow Gazette," dwelling on the decay of the Russian trade with China, attributes it partly to the high rate of exchange which has prevailed for the last year, and also to the increase of

customs duties on raw cotton in Russia.

In another article on the same subject, this journal observes that, although 1889 has proved a bad year, Russian trade with China must not be regarded as hopelessly extinguished, and that the new Siberian railway may possibly impart a new life to Russian commercial relations with China.

The "Moscow Gazette" further urges that Russian manufacturers and capitalists should combine for the purpose of reviving the Russian trade at Kiakhta, and for liberating the Chinese markets from the English monopoly now so damaging to Russian interests.

(Signed) CECIL GOSLING.

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## FOREIGN OFFICE.

1890.

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### RUSSIA.

### TAGANROG.

Consul Talbot to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Taganrog, September 22, 1890.

I HEREWITH have the honour to transmit to your Lordship my Report on the Coal and Salt Industries in the Donetz Basin, Province of Ekaterinoslav, during the past year.

I have, &c.

(Signed) C. A. P. TALBOT.

Report on the Coal and Salt Industries in the Donetz Basin for the past Year.

In returns lately published the production of coal at 29 Coal. collieries situated in the Donetz Basin, during the year 1889, is Production given as 967,095 tons, or an increase of 141,830 tons, or about 15 per cent. as compared with 1888. The quantity sold and shipped during the same period is calculated at 644,830 tons, a balance of 17,480 tons remaining at the pits' mouths, and 60,980 tons at the different railway stations.

The production and export of coal in the neighbourhood of the railways is distributed as follows:—

Railways.		Number of Collieries.	Production.	Sold and Exported.
Marinpol branch, Donetz line Kursk-Kharkov, Azov line Lisichansk branch, Donetz line Ekaterininsk line		12 5 9 3	Tons. 725,698 210,680 28,732 2,585	Tons. 491,230 196,563 27,400 1,687
Total	••	29	967,095	644,880

The increase in the production is principally accounted for by the increased demand at the new iron works at Alexandrovsk and Dnieprovsk; the marked improvement in the activity of the railways, foundries, and various manufactories, especially during (993)

the first half of last year; and also by the extensive purchases made by the larger consumers, who, benefiting by the lesson of the winter of 1888-9, laid in large stocks of coal, so that in the month of November the different railway companies held a quantity that would fully meet their consumption for the following six months. The latter fact, also, in a measure explains the increase of the supply over the demand, and consequently low prices ruling in the spring of the present year.

From another source it is stated that several trials of Russian coal have of late been made on board vessels of the Black Sea fleet, and, the results proving to be very satisfactory, the Admiralty have decided to use nothing but native coal, and have therefore entered into a contract with the South Russian Company to supply the quantity required. Coaling stations will be opened

at Kertch, Sevastopol, Yalta, and Theodosia.

The importation of English coal into South Russia during the English coal. present year, from the preceding causes, has fallen off more than Falling-off in 50 per cent., and is being gradually replaced by native coal, which is being shipped in large quantities at Marinpol, a port on the north coast of the Sea of Azov, for the Black Sea ports, and principally Odessa.

The late increase of 40 per cent. in the import duty on foreign Duty on coal coal will have, it is expected, a still greater effect in further reducing the quantity imported.

It is also stated that, with reference to the said increase, the Imperial Government have asked for information from the colliery proprietors of South Russia as to the condition of their mines. their productive capacities, the extent of the demand for their coal, does the supply equal the demand, or is there a difference on either hand, and, in case the demand exceeds the supply, could the activity in working the mines be increased, and by what means?

The production of rock salt in the Donetz Basin during the year 1889 reached 196,870 tons, of which 183,147 tons were sold.

At the Bakhmut works (province of Ekaterinoslav), which are fitted with 19 boiling pans, the output was 31,886 tons, and 26,226 tons were sold and exported. The 22 salt works, situated near the town of Slaviansk, Izum district, province of Kharkov, with 43 pans, produced 52,247 tons of salt, and 53,531 tons were sold and exported, including the balance left over from the previous year.

The total production of boiled salt during 1889 is computed at 281,003 tons, showing an increase of 40,395 tons against 1888. The quantity sold and exported was 262,793 tons, or an increase of 26,761 tons.

A commission appointed by the tariff committee at the last annual meeting of representatives of the Rusian railway companies, to inquire into the present condition of the salt industry in Russia, has already visited most of the principal centres of the said industry in this part of Russia, and is now carrying on its inquiries in the Crimea.

importation

Russian coal.

Use of by

Black Sea fleet.

Increase of.

Salt: rock salt.

Boiled salt.

1250 10 | 90-H&S 993)

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1891.

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## RUSSIA.

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REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Miscellaneous Series No. 175.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, JUNE, 1891.

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## RUSSIA.

#### **ODESSA**

Consul-General Sandwith to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Odessa, June 4, 1891.

In my Despatch, dated June 18, 1890, I had the honour to write a Report on the Operations of the Russian Steam Navigation and Trading Company, which has its head-quarters in Odessa. New statutes of the Company, somewhat modifying the old ones, have since been drawn up, which were confirmed by His Imperial Majesty the Tear on January 22 last (0.8.). In these the subsidy is slightly increased, and provision is made for an eventual opening of a Roumelian line between Odessa and Constantinople.

The more important of these statutes I have now the honour to annex in translation. As will be seen, they are to continue in

force till December 31, 1905 (o.s.).:

I have, &c. (Signed) THOMAS B. SANDWITH.

Statutes of the Russian Steam Navigation and Trading Company.

1. The Russian Steam Navigation and Trading Company, imaggrated in 1856 for the development of trade in the districts of South Russia, and for the development of steam navigation, of trading and postal communications of those districts with Russian and foreign ports (a Company patronised by His Imperial Majesty), continues to exist by virtue of the present statutes.

2. The Company is bound to maintain the following lines of communication:

(1150)

(a) Sevastopol-Constantinople, between Sevastopol Constantinople, once a week.

(b) Alexandrian direct; between Odessa and Alexandria vià Constantinople, weekly, calling one week at Piræus and the next

at Smyrna.

(c) Alexandrian indirect; between Odessa and Alexandria, calling at Constantinople, Dardanelles, Athos, Salonica, Piræus, Chios, Smyrna, Tripoli, Beyrout, Jaffa, Port-Said, and other intermediate ports, as directed by the Minister of Finance, once a fortnight.

(d) Anatolian, between Odessa and Batoum via Constantinople, calling at Ineboli, Sinope, Samsoun, Ordon, Kerasund,

Trebizond, and other intermediate ports, once a fortnight.

(e) Crimea-Caucasus indirect; a weekly boat between Odessa and Batoum, calling at Eupatoria, Sevastopol, Yalta, Theodosia, Kertch, Anapa, Novorossisk, Tuapsé, Sochi, Adler, Gudánt, Novo-Athos, Sukhum, Ochemchiri, and Poti.

(f) Crimea-Caucasus direct; a weekly boat between Odessa and Batoum, calling at Sevastopol, Yulta, Theodosia, Kertch, and

Novorossisk.

N.B. 1. On the closing of the port of Sevastopol to merchant vessels, the Sevastopol-Constantinople line will be substituted by

the Theodosia-Constantinople line.

N.B. 2. Should the port of Odessa be frozen up, the steamers of the compulsory lines may commence and terminate their voyages at Sevastopol instead of Odessa, and in the case mentioned in N.B. 1 at Theodosia.

N.B. 3. The ports of call of both the Crimea-Caucasus lines may be altered by a petition of the Company with the consent of

the Minister of Finance.

On the Alexandrian indirect line, Mersina and Alexandretta must be included in the number of ports of call should the Government desire it.

N.B. 4. The Government may demand an increase of compulsory voyages on any line which is subsidised should it deem it necessary; the subsidy would then be proportionately increased, or the number of voyages on other subsidised lines be reduced or altogether suspended.

The Company is bound to carry out such a demand from the Government within a period of six months after the Company is notified thereof. At the same time the aggregate number of subsidised miles may not be reduced more than 10 per cent. by

the new arrangement of compulsory voyages.
N.B. 5. On the Minister of Finance demanding that the Company should open a Roumelian line between Odessa and Constantinople, calling at Varna, Bourgas, and other intermediate ports, and to run the same weekly or fortnightly as directed by the Minister of Finance, the Company is bound to open such within three months of the date of notification to that effect.

3. Independently of the compulsory lines defined in clause 2, the Company is entitled to keep open other communications by sea between Russian ports or Russian and foreign ports, as well as tug and passenger communications on the rivers Boug, Dniester, Dnieper, Don, Danube, Kuban, and Rion, and all manner of navigation open to Russian subjects by virtue of the laws on trade and navigation.

4. The following regulations obtain regarding the carrying of

the mails by the steamers of the Company:-

(a) On all the regular lines the Company is bound to carry the post gratis from and to any of the regular ports.

(b) For carrying the parcels post the Company is only

allowed to charge the lowest tariff.

(e) In places where there are no post offices the Company's agents are to receive and issue correspondence. For this purpose detailed agreements between the Company and the head of the post and telegraph department, confirmed by the Minister at the Home Office, are drawn up.

5. The Company is bound to carry free of charge Government couriers, State messengers, post-office officials, &c., travelling on special duty. Likewise distressed Russian subjects (not more than five at a time) sent home by diplomatic or Consular

agents.

6. Separate regulations define the obligations of the Company

regarding the use of its vessels for Government purposes.

7. The vessels of the Company are to be yearly certified as

seaworthy if required by Government.

Should a vessel continue to run after she has been certified as unseawarthy, the Company will be fined 5,000 roubles for every voyage run.

8. The average speed of the steam vessels of the Company must be:—On the Sevastopol-Constantinople and Alexandrian direct lines, not less than 10 nautical miles an hour, and on the

other compulsory lines nine miles.

The Company is bound also to draw up a time-table for the boats on the compulsory lines, and to present it not later than July 1 every year to the Minister of Finance, showing:—(a) speed of vessels; (b) ports of call; (c) days and hours of arrivals at and departures from the principal ports of call, and (d) the lay hours in such ports. Such time-tables must be published not later than December 15 (o.s.) of the preceding year, and they are not allowed to be changed without the consent of the Minister of Finance.

9. The Company may not charge more for carrying passengers or baggage on the compulsory lines than is authorised by the Minister of Finance.

The Company is bound to make arrangements with Russian railway companies for direct communications where possible. The conditions of such direct lines of communication must be approved by the Minister of Finance, with the consent of the Minister of Ways of Communication.

10. On all the compulsory lines (clause 2) the Company is bound to have steamers, in number, capacity, and power adequate

(1150)

for the purpose of running the lines at a speed prescribed by these regulations, and for the safe, regular, and uninterrupted

transport of cargo and passengers.

On the confirmation of these regulations, the Company is bound, within the next 15 years, to procure 10 new steamers. Of this number four steamers are to be of not less than 4,000 tons displacement, three of 2,500 tons displacement, and three of 2,000 tons displacement. Of the total number of the said 10 steamers three must be procured not later than 1891 (of which one must be of not less than 4,000 tons displacement), one of 4,000 tons before the end of 1892, and one of 4,000 tons before the end of 1894; of the remaining five steamers one must be ready before the end of 1895, one before the end of 1897, one before the end of 1899, one before the end of 1901, and one before the end of 1903.

All these steamers must satisfy all the requirements of the English Lloyd's rules for 1st class boats, and must develop an average speed of not less than 14 nautical miles an hour on a trial trip of six hours' duration, loaded with a half-cargo and with a supply of coal for seven days' steaming at full speed.

All the other steamers running on the compulsory lines of regular communication must satisfy the requirements defined in the instructions for certifying the vessels of the Company, con-

firmed by the Minister of Finance.

N.B. The Company is obliged to supply means of transporting passengers and cargo from the steamers to the shore and back in such Russian ports where the vessels on the compulsory lines can-

not go alongside quays or the shore.

11. As regards navigation on rivers the Company is bound not to interrupt any other navigation, and to abide by all the rules and Government regulations in general regarding navigation, and likewise to observe the statutes for building, trading, and communications now in existence, and which may come into existence hereafter.

19. The Company is bound to put aside the sum of not less than 40,000 r. annually as a separate fund for the insurance of its employés, the expenditure of which must be made in accordance with a separate regulation made by the Company and

confirmed by the Minister of Finance.

22. The Company is accorded by the Government for the maintenance of the compulsory lines above referred to, with the exception of the Crimea-Caucasus direct and indirect lines, during the period of 15 years, i.e., till December 31, 1905 (O.S.), a subsidy of 2 r. for every nautical mile traversed on the Sevastopol-Constantinople and Alexandrian lines, and 1 r. 75 c. on the Alexandrian and Anatolian lines, and also on the Roumelian line should its maintenance be required.

Should the Government deem it necessary that the ports of Mersina and Alexandretta be included in the number of ports of call on the Alexandrian indirect line, then the subsidy would be increased to 2 r. for every mile traversed, instead of 1 r. 75 c.

ODESSA. 5

23. The piers, magazines, and stores for merchandise, coal, &c., and, generally speaking, all the places in Odessa and elsewhere which were used by the former "New Russian Expedition," are at the disposal of the Company during the whole of the period during which the Company will be subsidised, and on the same footing as that on which they were used by the "Expedition."

24. The Company is at liberty to build all manner of mechanical workshops, piers slips, offices, stores, and all other buildings on land belonging to the Government or to other departments, conforming always to the existing regulations, and with the consent of the Government, or of the department on

which such land depends.

25. The Company is bound to use Russian fuel on its steamers

as much as possible.

To facilitate the obtaining of coal, the Company may, independently of the anthracite mine worked by them on the plot of land rented from the Don Cossacks, near the Grushev mines, sink their own mines and likewise rent them of third persons in other places for the purpose of procuring coal for themselves, at their discretion, in accordance with the general regulations.

27. All military and civil authorities must render the Company all protection required of them, and must also co-

operate in protecting its interests.

30. The funds of the Company consist of a capital of 10,000,000 r. (1,190,500l.), divided into 20,000 shares of 500 r. (59l. 10s.) each.

31. Besides this, the Company possesses insurance and reserve

capital.

32. The insurance capital is formed from the actual resources of the Company, and consists of about 1,000,000 r.

(119,050l.).

Of this capital one part, viz., 500,000 r. (59,525l.), is set aside for the guarantee of the Company's operations in insuring merchandise transported on its vessels by seas and rivers. If in any year the current profits of the Company for these operations do not cover the expenditure under this head made by the Company, then the deficiency is covered by the said portion of the insurance capital, but at the same time it must be replaced by the first general receipts, so that the yearly balance of this portion should always amount to 500,000 r.

The other part of the insurance capital, amounting also to 500,000 r., is intended to cover the balance of cost of vessels in case of their loss or damage. To this second portion of the capital of 2 per cent. of the yearly profits of the Company from the balance of the cost of vessels on January 1 is placed in the years when this second portion will amount to less than 25 per

cent. of its stipulated value.

If in any year the full amount of this second part be too little to cover the expenses, owing to a concurrence of un-

favourable circumstances, then the deficiency is to be furnished

from the Company's reserve capital.

32. The insurance capital of the Company is kept in Russian Government paper money, in shares and obligations guaranteed by the Government, and likewise in mortgage deeds of land banks and obligations of town credit companies.

The interest on these papers goes to the general current

profit of the undertaking.

33. The reserve capital is formed of annual deductions from the income of the undertaking.

The reserve capital of the Company is intended:

(a) For capital expenditure made for the extension of the undertaking and for the purchase of new steamers; (b) for covering losses caused by wreck of vessels in the event of what is mentioned in clause 32; and (c) for covering other extraordinary losses which the Company might experience.

34. Only Russian subjects may become shareholders of the

Company.

35. Shares must be nominal, and are not transferable.

36. The direction of the Company is divided between directors, administration, council, and general meetings of the shareholders.

37. The director, whose residence is in Odessa, is the head of the Company, and is guided by separate special instructions. He must possess no less than 25 shares.

57. The director is bound every March to present the

administration with a report for the past year.

58. The direction is to be at St. Petersburg, and must consist of five members, two of whom are appointed by Government during all the time the Company is subsidised, and the other three are elected by a general meeting of shareholders.

One of the Government members is elected by the Minister

of Finance and the other by the Minister of Marine.

59. Each member of the council must possess no less than 25 shares of the Company, which are to be kept in the Company's safe during the whole of the time that the member is in actual service.

91. The yearly accounts of the Company, and likewise when and where the dividend will be issued, confirmed by a general meeting, must be published by the direction in the "Prairtelstveni Vestnik," the "Financial, Industry, and Trade" newspaper, and the St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Odessa papers.

95. The obligations of the Company regarding the maintenance of lines of communication, carrying of post, and the Government using the Company's vessels, and likewise the payment of a subsidy, ceases after December 31, 1905 (o.s.), should no new agreement be made before that time between the Company and the Government.

After that date the existence of the Company is not limited to any length of time, and its activity may at any time besuspended by an order of the general meeting, at which were present in person, or through their representatives, the share-holders possessing no less than three-fourths of the total number of shares of the Company; on the understanding, however, that while the Company receives a subsidy from the Government, it can only be dissolved by special permission of the Government.

N.B. In any case, on the question of dissolving the Company being raised, it may only be presented by the direction to the general meeting for discussion six months after the Minister of Finance has been informed of the project by the direction.

95. In the event of the dissolution of the Company, the direction will commence the liquidation of its affairs in accordance with Article 2,188 of the civil law, and the result must be published for the information of shareholders, and all such persons as are connected with the Company.

96. The stipulation in these statutes regarding the vessels being used for Government purposes, the certification of vessels, and the tariffs for transport do not free the Company from the operation of general laws, which may afterwards be issued

regarding steamship undertakings.

97. In all cases not foreseen and mentioned in these statutes, the Company is to be subject to the regulations for shareholding companies and steamship undertakings, and likewise to the general laws now in existence, and those which may afterwards be issued.

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## SPAIN.

#### MANILA.

Consul Gollan to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Manila, February 14, 1891.
WITH reference to Sir James Fergusson's Despatch of November 25 last, making certain inquiries with regard to the hemp industry in the Philippines, I have the honour to transmit

hemp industry in the Philippines, I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship a short Report, which will be found to embrace the particulars asked for, and containing such further information as I have been able to gather regarding the cultivation of the plant, and its preparation for export.

I beg leave to call special attention to the terms upon which alone foreigners are permitted to own land in these islands.

(Signed) I have, &c. GOLLAN.

Report on the Musa Textiles, or Manila Hemp Plant, in the Philippine Islands.

The plant which is very similar in appearance to the banana, Nature of or plantain, thrives best in soil composed of decayed vegetable matter, the principal districts in which it is cultivated being requisite. reclaimed forest lands. The yield is more abundant on hilly land than on low-lying flat ground, and the volcanic nature of the soil of these islands seems to be particularly adapted to the growth of the plant. The climate should be humid, as the trees require a large amount of moisture, and the production is chiefly in the southern districts where the rainfall is greater than in the vicinity of Manila. The trees suffer severely from excessive heat and drought.

The plant can be grown from seed; but the custom here, after cleaning the land thoroughly, is to plant small plants of about 3 feet high, leaving a space of from 2 yards to 3 yards between

(1074)

each, the young shoots which spring up later on around the parent stem filling up the intervening spaces. The ground should be carefully cleaned and weeded at least twice a year.

Price of stems. The cost of stems suitable for planting is about 1s. 6d. per hundred at their native plantation, carriage to their new destination being at the expense of the purchaser.

Length of time to produce crop.

As a rule it takes about three years to produce a full crop; but in a favourable soil a crop of about one-third the full production would be available in about two years after planting; the second crop the following year would yield about two-thirds; and by the fourth year a full crop would be obtained. The trees are ready for cutting when the first shoots begin to be thrown out. The plants must on no account be allowed to produce fruit or they become useless for fibre.

Process when plant matures.

When the trees have matured, and are ready for cutting, they are cut down about a fcot from the ground, and the labourer proceeds to strip off the layers from the trunk; these layers are cut into strips of about three inches wide, or say three strips to each layer. The strips are then drawn between a blunt knife and a board to remove the vegetable matter from the fibre, which latter is placed in the sun to dry. As soon as it is thoroughly dried it is ready for the market. The appearance and consequent value of the fibre mainly depends on the care bestowed in drying it, as should it be exposed to rain and not completely dried it becomes discoloured, assumes a brownish tinge, and loses its strength to a considerable extent.

Fibre of outside layer.

The outside layer produces a reddish coloured fibre, which is quite sound and easily distinguishable from spoiled hemp, but

fetches a lower price in the market.

Cost of preparing land.

The cost of preparing and planting a quiñon (about 7 acres), and keeping it clean up to the time of the first crop, is estimated at from 200 dol. to 300 dol., not including the first cost of the land; and afterwards an annual outlay of about 60 dol. would be required to keep the soil free from weeds, &c. The extent of land mentioned, after the plantation is three years old, would produce from 16 bales to 20 bales of hemp per annum, according to the quality of the soil.

Cost of land.

It is most difficult to give an accurate estimate of the first cost of land suitable for hemp production. The best places are, of course, already taken up, and intending purchasers would now have to content themselves with uncultivated and uncleared land, mainly in the islands of Mindanao, Samar, Leyte, and Negros. Such uncultivated tracts might perhaps be obtained from the Spanish Government at an average price of 1 dol. per acre, tut proximity to a shipping port would enhance the value considerably. As regards the purchase of estates already cleared and in working order it is quite impossible to give even an approximate estimate, as the industry being a very profitable one to those who understand it an occupier would not be likely to part with his property except at a fancy price. I need scarcely say that almost, without exception, landowners who devote

themselves to the production of hemp are European Spaniards or natives of these islands, and a foreigner would have considerable difficulty in establishing himself, and would meet with many obstacles before he found himself in touch with his surroundings. The language—I do not here speak of Spanish, but of the different dialects of Malay-would in itself be an important obstacle at the outset, and there are other drawbacks, such as a trying climate, the nature and disposition of the native labourer, the isolated and semi-civilised kind of life a man would have to lead to ensure success, and others of a like nature which a foreigner would do well to ponder over before embarking his capital in such a venture.

Granting, however, that the inducements are considered by Conditions anyone to overcome the disadvantages, foreigners must bear in on which a mind that they can only own land in the Philippines on the foreigner can own land. following conditions, which are strictly enforced:

1. That they reside in the Philippine Islands, and are duly registered in the books of their respective Consulates and of the Government.

2. That their lands be sold should they leave these islands and establish their domicile elsewhere.

3. That in the event of the death of a landed proprietor, his heirs be compelled to reside within the territory of the Philippine Islands or sell the property.

The acquisition of land by foreign companies or associations is

absolutely prohibited.

The cost of native labour is about 20 c. or 25 c. a day, but Labour. the principle upon which hemp plantations are worked is that the labourer gets one-half of the result of his work, the other half going to the proprietor. A labourer, under pressure, can clean about 20 lbs. of hemp per diem, but, as a rule, the quantity cleaned by one man working steadily day by day averages about 12 lbs.

I should mention that when once properly planted the trees Propagation propagate themselves and send up shoot after shoot from the old of plants. A plantation will continue to yield a good production for some 15 or 20 years, after which the soil becomes exhausted and new land has to be planted. There appears to be little or no disease among the trees, which are of a very hardy nature, but they are easily blown over, and suffer a good deal from the periodical hurricanes which afflict the Philippines.

Various unsuccessful attempts have been made to improve Machinery. upon the primitive knife and board which are, up to the present, the means used for cleaning the fibre. The great fault of the new inventions has been the weight of the machine, and the additional liability to break the fibre; a necessary requirement for any machine which would replace the present method is that it should be light enough to be easily carried about by the workmen from place to place on the plantation.

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Exports of hemp, 1890.

				Bales.	Tons.
To Great Britain	••	••		341,993	
United States		••		131,226	1
Australia	••	••		18,413	l
Other countries	••	••	••	14,528	
Total	••		-	506,155	= 68,270
As against	••	••	••	568,571	= 71,000
Decrease in	1890	••		62,411	= 17,780

The annual price for the year was about 34l. 10s. per ton f.o.b., so that the total value thus reached about 2,150,000l.

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REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORTS, House of Commons Returns, Nos. 135 and 149, 1877.

Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

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## SWEDEN.

## SŢOCKHOLM.

Sir F. Plunkett to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Stockholm, October 9, 1890.

I HAVE the honour to forward herewith a Report on the Gothenburg Licensing System, which has been drawn up by Mr. Constable, Third Secretary to this Legation, in pursuance of the instructions contained in your Lordship's despatch of July 15.

The necessity of referring to the various Vice-Consulates in Sweden for information, as to the working of the system in their respective districts, has caused considerable delay in the preparation of this Report, and increased the difficulty of it.

I have, &c.

(Signed) F. R. PLUNKETT.

## Report on the Working of the Gothenburg System since the Year 1876.

The scheme for regulating the sale of intoxicating liquors, widely known under the name of the Gothenburg System, originated in Sweden in the year 1865. The object aimed at by its founders was the decrease of the widespread poverty of the working classes, in so far as it was caused by the abuse of intoxicating liquors. The means by which it was proposed to bring about this result were:—

(1.) The radical reform of the manner in which the public-house traffic was conducted.

(2.) An artificial heightening of the price of spirituous liquors, to be secured by the suspension of the principle of competition.

With these ends in view, the authorities agreed to transfer the public-house licences, then existing in Gothenburg, to a company, who consented to undertake the business on the under-(998) standing that neither the shareholders, nor the persons engaged as managers, should derive any profits from the sales beyond a fixed percentage on the capital invested.

This principle of "no profit to the sellers" is the keystone of

the system whenever it has been established in Sweden.

It is important to notice that in the first year of operation of the new system, viz., 1866, the convictions for drunkenness in Gothenburg dropped from 2,070, at which figure they stood in the previous year, to 1,424.

There had been, up to the year of the formation of the company, 60 licences in existence, which were all in use—a proportion

of 1 public-house to every 785 inhabitants.

The first action taken by the company was to reduce this number by 17—from 60 to 43—being a proportion of 1 publichouse to every 1,093 inhabitants. The reduction would have been still more considerable, but for the fact that 20 public-house licences were privileged by burgess-ship, and did not therefore immediately fall under the control of the company.

There can be little doubt that the influence of the new system must have been beneficial from the very commencement, but this influence was, during the first 10 years of the company's existence, more than counterbalanced by the rise in workmen's wages, which was considerable towards the latter end of the

decade.

At the conclusion of these 10 years it was evident that, on the whole, the cause of public order and morality had not prospered in Gothenburg, and many people were ready to pronounce the new system a failure. In the year 1876, however, a change set in, and the last 14 years have been marked by a steady diminution:—

(1.) In the consumption of spirit per head of the population.

(2.) In the convictions for drunkenness (proportionally to the population).

(3.) In the number of cases of delirium tremens. In the year 1876 the total amount of spirits, native and foreign, consumed in Gothenburg stood at a total of 1,777,728

litres, or 28 90 litres per head of the population.

The returns for the year 1889 show that the quantity of spirits consumed in that year amounted to 1,568,154 litres. population having in the interval increased from 61,505 to 97,677, the amount consumed per head had therefore fallen from 28.90 to 16.05 litres.

The following tabular statement, extracted from the annual reports of the company, will serve to show the gradual progress made during the 13 years included between the above-mentioned dates:---

Year.*			Quantity of Spirits ('onsumed, given in Litres.	Population.	Consumption per Head, given in Litres.	
1876		<del></del>	1,777,728	61,505	28.90	
1877	••	••	1,732,589	68,391	27.33	
1878	• •	••	1,660,197	65,697	25.27	
1879	••		1,491,890	66,840	22.32	
1880	••		1,412,097	68,477	20.62	
1881	••		1.396.764	71.533	19.53	
1882		•	1,311,479	72,555	18.08	
1883	• •		1,481,000	77,653	18.48	
1884	••		1,497 662	80,811	18.53	
1885	• •	• •	1,554,216	84,450	18.40	
1886	• •	• •	1,596,245	88,230	18.09	
1887	••	• • •	1,545,384	91.396	16.91	
1888	••	•••	1,580,927	94,370	16.75	
1889	••	•••	1,568,154	97,677	16.05	

<sup>\*</sup> In the accounts of the company the year is reckoned from October 1 to September 30. The year 1876, therefore, really includes three months of 1875, and so forth.

In Gothenburg the new system cannot be said to have come entirely into force before the year 1874, because, until that date, the retail trade was not brought under the control of the company. The smallest quantity of spirits permitted by law to be sold retail, was I kanna, or rather more than half a gallon. It was thought that this quantity was large enough to prevent liquor being procured regularly by working men at the low retail price, and thus defeating the ends aimed at by the company. This, however, proved a mistake, for the workmen clubbed together and bought brandy from the retailers at a much cheaper rate than then was possible in the public-houses of the company, and consumed it on private premises. This expedient was at last so generally resorted to that the authorities were induced, in 1874, to transfer the retail spirit traffic also to the company, which has, in consequence, been enabled since that date to control the price of spirituous liquors in Gothenburg, and to show by its books the variations in consumption which have occurred during the subsequent years.

In the year 1889, 3,282 convictions for drunkenness appear on the Gothenburg registers, as against 2,410 in 1876. This shows a slight improvement, considering the large increase of population which has occurred in the interval, for if the convictions had maintained the same proportion to the population, and had kept pace with its increase they would have stood at about 3,900 for the year 1889. Still, the progress in this particular is much less than might have been expected from a consideration of the great diminution in the quantity of liquor consumed, and in the number of cases of delirium tremens, and the explanation probably is that the police surveillance has become much stricter of late years.

In 1876, 89 cases of delirium tremens were treated in the hospitals of Gothenburg, whereas in 1889 only 42 cases occurred. (998)

This shows an absolute improvement of more than 50 per cent., and an improvement relative to the increased population of about 70 per cent.

A tabular statement of the number of cases occurring in every

year since 1872 is given below:—

Year					Cau	ses of D	elirium '	Fremens
1872				••	••		123	
1878		••	••	••	••	••	159	
1874		• •	• •	••	••	• •	109	
1875		••	••		••	••	80	
1876		••	••	• • •	••	••	89	
1877		•••			••	••	89	
1878		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••	••		•••	64	
1879		• • •		••		•••	42	
1880		•••	••	••	••	••	44	
1881				••	- •		53	
1882	••	••	••	••	• •	••	<b>5</b> 2	
1883		••	••	••	••	••	52 52	
1884	••	• •	••	••	••	• •	55	
	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	• •		
1885	• •	• •		• •	• •	• •	84	
1886	• •	• •		• •	• •	• •	56	
1887	••		••				62	
1888							80	
1889	••		••	••	••	••	42	

From a commercial point of view the affirs of the Gothenburg Licensing Company are very prosperous. In 1889, after paying the 6 per cent. to the shareholders, defraying all expenses of management, and handing over 72,400 kronor (4,022l. 4s. 5d.) as compensation to publicans and merchants for the loss of their licences, it was able to pay 682,231 kronor (37,901l. 14s. 5d.) into the municipal and provincial treasuries.

This is very nearly as large a sum as was available in 1876, notwithstanding the considerable diminution in the quantity of liquor sold. The reason of this is that the company ask a higher price for their spirits at present than they did 15 years ago, the average rate or tax on every litre sold at the bar being now 55 ore (about 7d.), whereas in 1876 it was only 43 ore (about 5½).

The sums paid into the public treasuries are used for bettering the condition of the poorer classes and furthering works of general

ntility

Specimens of the three descriptions of contracts usually made by the company when they engage a manager are given in an appendix.

In Stockholm the Gothenburg system has only existed since 1877. The question of its introduction had often been canvassed previously to that date, but there were great difficulties in its practical application, in consequence of the large number of permanent licences which had been granted by the authorities, and which had become in the course of time valuable properties. In 1866 there existed no less than 367 of these permanent licences. In that year, however, the Town Council of Stockholm appointed a commission to inquire into the titles of the holders of the licences. These were for the most part pronounced good, but the upshot of the inquiry was that an offer was made on the part of the

municipal authorities to the holders of licences privileged by burgess-ship, of a yearly payment of 450 kronor (251) during the life of each holder, if he would consent to forego his rights. This offer proved to be not high enough, and 146 of the holders elected to retain their trading privileges. In 1875 a new commission was appointed; the result of this second inquiry was that negotiations were entered into, promptly and simultaneously, with all the remaining holders of licences, so as to prevent as far as possible their consulting together and combining to raise the prices. This action was so successful that the town purchased all the licences, with the exception of 13, for annuities varying between 500 kronor (271. 15s. 6d.) and 2,000 kronor (1111. 2s. 2d.), which amounted in all to an annual payment of 124,100 kronor (6,8942. 8s. 8d.).

The remaining 13 licences were shortly afterwards acquired

by the town, but not on quite such good terms.

The population of Stockholm at the time of this transaction

was about 144,000.

This difficulty having been overcome, a company was formed on the model of the one which had been for 10 years in operation at Gothenburg. The concession was granted by the prefect in December 1876, but the company did not actually commence business till October 1 of the following year.

The public-houses of Stockholm during the last few years, before the formation of the company, had nearly reached the number of 200, a proportion of about 1 to every 750 inhabitants.

The first use the company made of their monopoly was to reduce the number to 87, a proportion of 1 to every 1,695 inhabitants.

It is worthy of remark that, although this great reduction was effected in a single day (the actual number of public-houses existing in Stockholm on September 30 being 193), no protest was made on the part of the lower classes, who thus suddenly

found 106 of their customary resorts closed against them,

In this connection it may be useful to note that Herr Rubenson, chief of the Stockholm police, in a pamphlet recently published by him, is very emphatic in the expression of his opinion that the amount of drunkenness in a town is to a great degree dependent on the number of the public-houses existing in it. This relation of cause and effect having, it appears, often been called in question by English authorities, it will presumably be of interest to hear of so decided a pronouncement on the subject from a man of Herr Rubenson's special knowledge and great experience.

The Stockholm company have been careful in selecting good open situations for their public-houses, so that, in addition to the advantages accruing from the diminution in the number of such establishments, a great advance has been made in the matters of

light, air, and cleanliness.

These improved conditions have, in the opinion of Herr Rubenson, greatly conduced to the decrease of drunkenness which has taken place in Stockholm during the last 13 years. He considers that the lower orders feel a certain constraint in the light, well-ordered, and respectably frequented premises of the company, and are ashamed to conduct themselves otherwise than properly in the midst of such surroundings. They could, of course, drink in their own houses, and it was at one time thought that this would be a danger attendant on the methods pursued by these patriotic associations, but in practice these fears do not seem to have been justified. In addition to the restraining influence exerted, in the case of married men, by the presence of their families, must be added the fact that the monopoly enjoyed by the company has had the effect of raising the average price of brandy from 0.69 kronor  $(10\frac{1}{2}d.)$  to 1.4 kronor (1s. 2d.) per litre. For brandy consumed on the premises the price now charged is 1.60 kronor  $(1s. 9\frac{1}{2}d.)$  per litre, as against 1.15 kronor  $(1s. 3\frac{1}{2}d.)$ , at which it stood previously to 1877.

It is generally considered that the early hours of closing enjoined by the statutes of the Stockholm Company have had much to do with the diminution of drunkenness. When the new system was first introduced the public-houses were closed every night at 10 o'clock, and on Sundays and holidays they were shut up for 7½ hours during the day. But in 1883, in compliance with a petition signed by some 10,000 men of the working classes,

a reform was introduced.

On January 30 of that year an order was issued that in future no liquor should be served out Sundays or holidays unless food were taken at the same time, and that on Saturday evenings, after the workmen had received their week's wages, the publichouses should be closed at 6 p.m. The same early hour of closing

was also to be observed on the days preceding holidays.

It seems needless to occupy space by giving separate tables of statistics showing the decrease in the quantity of spirits consumed in Stockholm, and in the number of persons fined for drunkenness proportionately to the number of inhabitants, inasmuch as they would be almost a repetition of those already given for the town of Gothenburg, the rate of improvement having been nearly the same in the two instances. It should be observed, however, that the returns published of the cases of delirium tremens and chronic alcoholism are not so favourable for Stockholm as they are for Gothenburg.

In order to make the evidence with regard to the working of the Gothenburg system as complete as possible, Her Majesty's Consuls at Stockholm and Gothenburg were requested to obtain returns from the Vice-Consuls within their respective districts.

Replies have been received from 22 Vice-Consuls in all, and are without exception favourable to the new system. In every case, except one, where statistical information has been supplied, the figures show a decrease in the quantity of spirits consumed and in the number of fines for drunkenness, never less and often greater than is the case for Gothenburg. This seems to be of importance in showing that the scheme works quite as well when applied on a small scale as it does for such considerable towns as

Stockholm or Gothenburg. The single exception above-mentioned is in the case of Umea, which was partially destroyed by fire two years ago. The large influx of working men brought into the district for the rebuilding of the town seems a quite sufficient explanation of the increase of crime and drunkenness which

appears to have recently taken place there.

Another unanimously favourable expression of opinion was obtained from the governors of provinces, in Sweden, in the year 1877. A committee of the Diet, appointed by the King, had submitted a series of questions to these officials, of which the fourth stood as follows:—"What results have been found to accrue from the transfer of the liquor trade to companies in different communes, in the way of promoting order and morality?" From the résumé of the replies received, published by Dr. Wieselgren in his account of the Gothenburg system, the governors appear to have borne unbroken and unvarying testimony as to the beneficial effects which had followed the application of the system.

#### APPENDIX.

Contract (A.)—For public-houses where it is optional to take food.

Contract (A2.)—For eating-houses. Contract (B.)—For wine shops.

## Contract (A.).

The Gothenburg Public-house Licensing Company, instituted with a view to the organisation and careful administration of the public-house and retail brandy traffic in this town, as adapted to the present time, having bound themselves to conduct the said traffic with the sole object of improving the moral and material condition of the working classes, without any view to their own private profit, herewith engage as manager for the public-house premises No. , in the house No.

confidently expecting his zealous and energetic co-operation in promoting the above-mentioned object, for which end he is required to observe the following instructions:—

(1.) All public-house traffic in spirituous liquors, including liqueurs, as well as every kind of Swedish and foreign wines, is to be conducted on the company's account, the manager deriving

no profit whatever for himself.

(2.) The manager, who is bound to supply the public with good and well-prepared food, cold or warm, according to demand, is on his own account to conduct the sale of provisions, as well as of coffee, tea, cocoa, soda and seltzer waters, cigars, and all other items belonging to a well-ordered eating-house.



(3.) The manager is personally responsible for the carrying out of all those regulations concerning the public-house traffic in towns which are, or may hereafter, be enacted, as well as of those statutes which specially concern the town; the manager is, moreover, responsible to the company for all losses that may accrue to it through his neglect in this respect.

(4.) The manager binds himself

To sell spirituous liquors and wines of the for ready money paid down on the spot;

To keep orderly and decent assistants, who serve their

customers with civility and attention;

To keep the premises clean, orderly, and airy, as also well lighted and warmed during the cold season.

(5.) The manager is expressly forbidden

To sell spirituous drink or intoxicating malt liquors to persons who are already the worse for liquor, or under age;

To go on selling spirits to persons who require several drams in succession, who are drunk on the spot, or who pay repeated visits to the public house, within short intervals, for the purpose of drinking. The manager is enjoined to see that these regulations be most strictly observed, as their transgression will be severely dealt with by the directors.

(6.) On application from the manager, all spirituous liquors, as well as wines, will be furnished from the company's stores, in the company's own vessels; nor may the manager, under any pretext, not even for his own use, buy, receive, or have in his

keeping, any liquors except those of the company.

(7.) Public-house traffic may not be carried on in any rooms except those specially appointed in the company's premises, and the manager is prohibited from keeping the stores to be sold on the company's account in any part of the premises, except the one appointed by it. The premises, where the whole traffic both of the company and the manager is carried on, as well as dwelling places for the latter, his family, and the servants required, are furnished by the company, who hires them in its own name, and is therefore responsible for the rent.

(8.) The company's casks, furnished to every public-house, containing brandy, cognac, &c., shall be kept so as to be under

strict control.

(9.) All spirituous liquors are to be served in glasses belonging to the company, marked with its name, and containing two cubic inches.

(10.) The manager is bound in his sales strictly to follow the company's tariff, a copy of which is placed in each public-house.

(11.) The manager is bound to sell spirits and wines to be drunk off the premises, at the same price as that consumed on the

(12.) Every manager is furnished with a pass-book, in which he is debited for all stores received from the company for sale, at the same prices as those fixed in the tariff, whereas he is credited for the amount of the sales accounted for, which account takes

place at least once a week, on a day appointed by the board of directors, when the manager pays the sum derived from the traffic on the company's behalf, into whichever bank the company has agreed with to receive the payment, from which bank he gets a receipt, which stands for payment, and is on the same day handed over to the company's office and noted in its books, as well as credited in the manager's pass-book.

(13.) The manager is bound to account to the company, without deduction, for all the spirits he has received from the company for sale, whether sold according to tariff, or still

remaining as stock on hand,

(14.) An inventory of the public-house stock is taken at least

once in a month, or as often as the company thinks fit.

(15.) Every other Monday, together with the weekly account of sales, the manager has to hand in to the company's office a list of the stock still on hand.

(16.) The manager is bound to sell his stores as he has received them, and is consequently prohibited from adding thy ingredient,

or otherwise altering their quality.

(17.) The manager may not, besides his place as publicant in the company's service, hold any other post or carry on any other trade, either in the premises rented by the company or any other locality.

(18.) The manager may not, without special leave given by the directors, introduce musical entertainments, or harbour

strangers on the company's premises.

(19.) The manager is required to treat the company's officers with civility and respect, and to obey without demut such orders as they may be empowered to give, and to furnish any information that may be required regarding the traffic in general.

(20.) The manager is charged to take good care of the company's property, as specified in their list, and to replace whatever is lost or damaged, only excepting such stores as have

been destroyed by fire, or worn by time and use.

(21.) Security, approved by the company's accountant, is to be given by the manager for the accuracy of his account of the stores entrusted to him and his obligations in regard to the

property, to the amount of

(22.) On the same day every third month the manager receives at the company's office the amount in cash which the directors, after due consideration, have fixed on as compensation for the unavoidable expenses incurred by him in carrying on the company's business during the said three months, in which account must also be taken of the number of servants he has to keep for attending to the business, their food, maintenance, and wages, such of the outlay for lighting, heating, and cleaning the premises as may fall to the company's share, and finally the remuneration which the directors may see fit to assign to the manager for the punctual and conscientious observance of his obligations, which include providing food and keeping at restaurant adapted to the needs of the different premises.



(23.) The appointment is mutually terminable on two months' notice, but if the manager breaks any of the provisions here made, or to be hereafter issued, he (or she) can be dismissed at once, without compensation, besides which the company has a right to dismiss the manager, whenever it sees fit, without giving any specified reason; but, in that case, he is to receive compensation for two months' board and lodging fixed at

Gothénburg, the The Directors of the Gothenburg Public-house Licensing Company.

### Contract (A2).

The Gothenburg Public-house Licensing Company, instituted with a view to the organisation and careful administration of the public-house and retail brandy traffic in this town, as adapted to the present time, having bound themselves to conduct the said traffic with the sole object of improving the moral and material condition of the working classes, without any view to their own private profit, herewith engage as manager for the public-house premises No. , in the house No. , confidently expecting his zealous and energetic co-operation in promoting the above-mentioned object, for which he is required to observe the following instructions:-

(1.) As the principal object of the above-mentioned publichouse is to supply good and well-cooked food both for consumption on and off the premises, at a cheap rate to the working classes, all sale of spirits is prohibited, except the dram before meals, when wine may likewise he served; such public-house traffic being conducted exclusively on the company's account, the

manager deriving no profit from it.

(2.) The manager sells on his own account all kinds of food, coffee, tea, cocoa, malt liquors, soda and seltzer waters, and all other items belonging to a well-conducted eating-house, whereas ale and porter may only be served at meals, or in the forenoon, if

sandwiches to the value of at least 12 ore\* are required.

(3.) The manager is personally responsible for the observance of all those regulations concerning the public-house traffic in towns which are or may hereafter be enacted, as well as of those statutes which specially concern the town; the manager is, moreover, responsible to the company for all losses which may accrue to the company through his neglect in this respect.

(4.) The manager binds himself

To sell spirituous liquors and wines only for ready money paid down on the spot.

To keep orderly and decent assistants, who serve their

customers with civility and attention.

To keep the premises clean, orderly, and airy, also well

lighted and heated during the cold season.

(5.) The manager may not sell spirits to persons already the worse for drink or under age.

It is therefore incumbent on the manager to see that this regulation be most strictly attended to by his assistants.

(6.) On application from the manager all spirituous liquors, as well as wines, will be furnished from the company's stores in the company's own vessels, nor may the manager under any pretext, not even for his own use, buy, receive, or have in his keeping any liquors except those belonging to the company.

(7.) Public-house traffic may not be carried on in any rooms

except those specially appointed on the company's premises, and the manager is prohibited from keeping the stores to be sold on the company's account in any part of its premises except the one

appointed by it.

The premises where the whole traffic, both of the company and of the manager is carried on, as well as dwelling places for the latter, his family, and the servants required, are furnished by the company, who hires them in its own name, and is therefore responsible for the rent.

(8.) The company's casks, furnished to every public-house, containing brandy and wine, shall be so kept as to be under strict

control.

(9.) All spirits are served in glasses belonging to the company, bearing its mark, and containing two cubic inches.

(10.) The manager is bound in his sales strictly to follow the company's tariff, a copy of which is placed in every public-house.

(11.) Every manager is furnished with a pass-book, in which he is debited for all stores received from the company for sale at the same prices as those fixed in the tariff; whereas he is credited for the amount of the sales accounted for, which account is to take place at least once a week, on a day appointed by the board of directors, when the manager pays the sum derived from the traffic on the company's behalf into whichever bank the company has agreed with to receive the payment, from which he gets a receipt that stands for payment, and is on the same day handed over to the company's office and noted in its books, and credited in the manager's pass-book.

(12.) The manager is bound to account to the company, without deduction, for all the spirits he has received from the company for sale, whether sold according to its tariff, or still

remaining as stock on hand.

(13.) An inventory of the public-house stock is taken at least once a month, or as often as the company thinks fit.

(14.) Every other Monday, together with the weekly account of sales, the manager has to send in to the company's office a list of the stock still on hand.

(15.) The manager is bound to sell his stores as he has received them, and is consequently prohibited from adding any

ingredient or otherwise altering their quality.

(16.) The manager may not, besides his place as publican in the company's service, hold any other post or carry on any other trade, either on the premises rented by the company or any other locality.

(17.) The manager may not, without special leave given by the directors, introduce musical entertainments, or harbour

strangers in the company's premises.

(18.) The manager is required to treat the company's officers with civility and respect, and to obey, without demur, such orders as they may be empowered to give, and to furnish any information that may be required regarding the traffic in general.

(19.) The manager is bound to take good care of the company's property, as specified in their inventory, and to replace whatever is lost or damaged, always excepting such as has been

destroyed by fire or worn by time and use.

(20.) Security, approved by the company's accountant, is to be given by the manager for the accuracy of his account of the stores entrusted to him, and his obligations with regard to the

property, to the amount of

(21.) On the same day, every third month, the manager receives at the company's office the amount in cash, which the directors, after due consideration, have fixed on as compensation for the unavoidable expenses incurred by him in carrying on the company's business during the said three months, wherein account must also be taken of the number of servants he has to keep for attending to the business, their food, maintenance, and wages, such of the outlay for light, fire, and cleaning as may fairly fall to the company's share; and, finally, the remuneration which the directors may see fit to assign to the manager for the punctual and conscientious observance of his obligations, which include providing food and keeping a restaurant adapted to the needs of the different premises.

(22.) The appointment is mutually terminable on two months' notice, but if the manager breaks any of the provisions here made or hereafter to be issued, he (or she) can be dismissed at once, without compensation, besides which the company has a right to dismiss the manager whenever it sees fit, without giving any specified reason; but, in that case, he is to receive compensation for two months' board and lodging, to an amount

fixed at

Gothenburg, the
The Directors of the Gothenburg Public-house
Licensing Company.

For the obligation incurred in clause 21 of this contract, of rendering an exact account, as well as of refunding whatever deficit may have occurred,

goes security jointly and severally, as for his own

debt, up to the amount of

Gothenburg, the

Witnesses.

#### Contract (B.).

The Gothenburg Public-house Licensing Company, instituted with a view to the organisation and careful administration of the

public-house and retail brandy traffic in this town, as adapted to the time being, having bound themselves to conduct the said traffic with the sole object of improving the moral and material condition of the working classes, without any view to their own private profit, herewith engage as manager for the public-house , in the house No. premises No.

confidently expecting his zealous and energetic co-operation in promoting the above-mentioned object, for which he is required to observe the following instructions:—

(1.) All public-house traffic in spirituous liquors (including liqueurs) is to be conducted on behalf of the company, the manager binding himself to render account of the stores sold, at

the prices fixed on, whenever a new supply is issued.

2.) The manager, who is bound to supply his customers with good and well-prepared food, cold or warm, according to demand, is on his own account to carry on the sale of provisions, as well as wine, coffee, tea, cocoa, soda and seltzer waters, malt liquors, &c., all belonging to a well-conducted eating-house.

(3.) The manager is personally responsible for the observance of all those regulations concerning the public-house traffic in towns which are or may hereafter be enacted, as well as of those statutes which specially concern the town; the manager is, moreover, responsible to the company for all losses which may accrue to the company through his neglect in this respect.

(4.) The manager is prohibited from selling brandy to any persons who have not at the same time ordered food for a sum at least equivalent to that of the brandy, as he is not to keep a gin

He is, moreover, bound shop.

> To hire and defray the expenses of the premises required for carrying on the entire traffic of the company, as well as his own, and not to keep or sell the company's stores in any other place than the one it has fixed on.

To keep orderly and decent assistants, who serve their

customers with civility and attention.

To keep the premises clean, well ventilated, and lighted, and duly heated during the cold season at his own expense.

(5.) The manager may not sell spirits to persons already the worse for drink or under age, and must keep a strict look out that these regulations be punctually attended to by his assistants.

(6.) On application from the manager, all spirituous liquors will be furnished from the company's office, nor may the manager, under any pretext, not even for his own use, buy, receive, or have in his keeping any liquors except those belonging to the com-

(7.) Every manager is furnished with a pass-book, in which he is debited for all stores received from the company for sale at the same prices as those fixed in the tariff, whereas he is credited for the amount of the sales accounted for, which account is to take place at least once a week, on a day appointed by the board of directors, when the manager pays the sum derived from the traffic on the company's behalf into whichever bank the company has agreed with to receive the payment, from which he gets a receipt that stands for payment, and is on the same day handed over to the company's office and credited in its books, as well as in the manager's pass-book.

(8.) An inventory of the stock in hand in each public-house is taken at least once every third month, and, for the rest, whenever

the company sees fit.

(9.) The manager is bound to sell his stores just as he has received them, and is consequently prohibited from adding any

ingredient or otherwise altering their quality.

(10.) The manager may not, beside his place as publican in the company's service, hold any other post, or carry on any other trade, either in the premises rented by the company or in any other locality.

(11.) The manager may not, without special leave from the

directors, introduce musical entertainments on his premises.

(12.) The manager is required to treat the company's officers with civility and respect, and to obey, without demur, such orders as they may be empowered to give, and to furnish any information that may be required regarding the traffic in general.

(13.) The manager is bound to take good care of the company's property, as specified in his list, and to replace whatever is lost or damaged, only excepting such as has been destroyed by

fire, or worn by time and use.

(14.) Security, approved by the company's accountant, is to be given by the manager for the accuracy of his account of the stores entrusted to him, and his obligations in regard to the

property, to the amount of

(15.) The appointment is mutually terminable on two months' notice, but if the manager breaks any of the provisions here made, or hereafter to be stipulated, he (or she) can be dismissed at once, without compensation, besides which the company has a right to dismiss the manager whenever it sees fit, without giving any specified reason.

Gothenburg, the
The Directors of the Gothenburg Public-house
Licensing Company.

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1891.

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#### SWEDEN.

#### STOCKHOLM.

Mr. Gough to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, Stockholm, December 13, 1890.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a short account translated and prepared by Mr. Strickland-Constable, of the Swedish State Railways, during last year.

The State, besides owning the railways described in this report, is a creditor of several private railways, nearly 3,000,000*l*. having been thus lent.

The Rigsdag of 1886 voted 277,777*l.* in support of private railways, at the rate of 55,555*l.* a year for five years, from 1887 to 1891 inclusive, and this money is now disposed of.

The Roads and Waterways Commission has recently reported to the King that on October 24 last concessions had been granted for new railways, amounting in length to 333 kiloms. (207 miles), and estimated to cost 612,676l. (2,959l. per mile), and other applications had been made for concessions for railways of a total length of 291½ kiloms. to cost 617,011l.

Owing to the 277,777l. voted in 1886 being now disposed of, it is said that a proposal will be made in the new Rigsdag to

vote a further sum in support of private railways.

I have, &c. (Signed) HUGH GOUGH.

#### The Swedish State Railways.

In the course of the year 1889, 82 kiloms, of fresh line were added to the Swedish Government Railways, which, with this addition, reach a total length of 2,613 kiloms.

The Government property in railways, including those in Capital. course of construction, may be estimated at a value of 261,649,500 kronor (14,536,083!).

(1015)

Profits.

The gross traffic receipts for the year 1889 amounted to 22,201,302 kronor (1,233,405L), from which 14,645,166 kronor (813,620L) must be deducted for working expenses. The debt incurred in the construction of railways, on which interest was paid for the year 1889, amounted to the sum of 286,390,996 kronor (15,910,611L): about 2,000,000 kronor of this amount, however, is sunk in lines which are still in course of construction. If this last-mentioned sum be compared with the net receipts for the year 1889, it will be found that they amount to 2.64 per cent. of the total capital.

Receipts and working expenses. The gross receipts are greater than the corresponding sum for the previous year by no less than 1,408,419 kronor (78,245*l*.). The average amount brought in per kilometre of railway is 449 kronor (25*l*.), or rather more than 5 per cent. higher than the average for the preceding year. The total expenditure amounted to 14,645,166 kronor (813,620*l*.), which is 829,317 kronor (46,073*l*.) more than the preceding year. The net profits amounted to 7,556,137 kronor (419,785*l*.), an increase of 579,102 kronor (32,172*l*.). The number of stations for traffic amounted at the end of the year 1889 to 266, not counting 87 stopping places and depôts for loading of lesser importance.

At the end of last year 90 private owners of lines worked in connection with the State railways, of whom 68 were members of the union founded in 1882 for running these lines in combination

with one another.

Rolling stock.

The rolling stock of the State railways consisted at the beginning of the year 1889 of 362 locomotives, 821 carriages for passengers, 63 prison and mail vans, 189 military baggage wagons, 8,603 goods trucks, and 2 wagons mounted with cranes.

During the year 11 locomotives, 12 passenger carriages, and

17 goods trucks were added to the already existing stock.

Traffic.

The entire number of passengers during the year 1889 amounted to 4,340,222, who travelled an average distance of 45 kiloms, per person. The total receipts for passenger traffic were 7,196,790 kronor (399,822*l.*), which showed an increase of nearly 97,000 kronor (5,389*l.*) on the previous year. The total number of passengers showed an increase of 260,000 in round numbers.

Only 34,442 travelled in the first class, while in the second and third class carriages there were 681,526 and 3,549,034

respectively.

The receipts for goods traffic were slightly over 13,000,000

kronor (722,222*l*.).

Forty-five accidents took place, 22 persons being killed, and 23 badly injured; of the killed 12 were employes, but none were passengers. The whole number of employes at the end of 1889 was 5,087.

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1891.

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REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Miscellaneous Series No. 160.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, JUNE, 1891.

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Reference to previous Report, Miscellaneous Series No. 160.

#### SWITZERLAND.

#### BERNE.

Mr. Scott to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord,

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship, herewith, a Report, drawn up by Mr. Buchanan, Second Secretary of this Legation, on the subject of Compulsory Insurance against Illness, and the Working of Mutual Aid Societies in this country, being in continuation of his Report on the Compulsory Insurance of Workmen against Accidents, which I had the honour to forward to your Lordship in my despatch of March 13 of last year.\*

Mr. Buchanan has been devoting great attention and study to this interesting question, and his able Report will be found to contain much valuable information.

I have, &c. (Signed) CHARLES S. SCOTT.

Report on the Question of Compulsory Insurance against Illness, and on the Working of Mutual Aid Societies in Switzerland.

By the adoption last June of an additional Article to the Constitution, giving the Confederation competence to legislate on the subject of compulsory insurance, the Federal Assembly took Compulsory the first practical step towards the realisation of the object which insurance. it had in view when it invited the Federal Council in March, 1885, to take into its consideration the question of the compulsory insurance of workmen against accidents.

The Article, as finally passed by the Chambers, differs considerably from the text of the original one submitted to them by the Federal Council, and is the result of a compromise between the latter and the various amendments proposed in the course of

the debates. It now runs as follows:-

\* See No. 160 Miscellaneous Series.—Ed. (1130)

Text of Article empowering Confederation to legislate. Its adoption by the people at the Referendum.

"The Confederation is competent to introduce by way of legislation, insurance against sickness and accidents, taking into account the mutual aid societies already existing.

"It may declare participation in these insurances obligatory

in general, or for certain determined categories of citizens."

This partial revision of the Constitution was submitted to the Referendum on October 26 with the result that the principle of compulsory insurance, which it initiated, received the sanction of a very large majority of the Swiss people. In obedience to this popular mandate, the Federal Council is now engaged in the elaboration of the measure for which it has been collecting materials for some years past, but which, owing to the many difficulties surrounding the subject, is not likely to be submitted to the Chambers during the present year.

Compulsory insurance against illness.

It has been shown in a previous report that it was the supposed failure of the Liability of Employers' Acts to protect the interests of workmen, which brought into prominence the idea of their compulsory insurance against accidents, and it may now be well, while awaiting the future proposals of the Federal Government, to inquire how far the principle of compulsory insurance against illness has already found acceptance in the country, and to examine into the nature and working of the existing mutual aid societies, on which it is suggested that the proposed scheme of compulsory insurance against illness should be grafted.

Adopted in a limited form of Appensell and St. Gall.

The idea of such a form of insurance is no novel one in Switzerland. It has been discussed over and over again in the legislative councils of certain cantons, but up to the present it has only been carried into effect in the cantons of St. Gall and in the cantons Appenzell. In both of them, moreover, its scope has been strictly limited to a small fraction of the population, consisting of natives of other cantons who might otherwise have become a charge on the commune in which they had temporarily settled when prevented by illness from gaining a livelihood. The introduction, therefore, of this restricted form of compulsory insurance was prompted by a desire to relieve the communes of a troublesome burden rather than by any social or philanthropic motive.

Appenzell.

The cauton of Appenzell was the first to move in this direction. By a law passed in 1879 each commune was required to take measures, subject to the approval of the cantonal authorities, for the compulsory enrolment into one or other of the existing mutual aid societies of all residents within its districts who were not citizens of the canton. The law fixed the entrance fee into these societies at 5d., and the weekly premium at  $2\frac{1}{2}d$ .

The canton of St. Gall took a further step in the same direction in 1885 by passing a law requiring each commune or group of communes to establish special societies for the compulsory insurance of all non-natives of the canton who had not already joined a recognised mutual aid society containing at least 100 members. The entrance fee was fixed at 5d., and the weekly premium at 21d. for men, and 2d. for women, and in the event of

St. Gall.

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these contributions proving insufficient the deficit was to be met out of the communal poor fund. By way, moreover, of encouraging the erection of communal hospitals the State undertook to contribute a sum not exceeding 25 per cent. of the total cost of such a building in any commune whose resources fell short of the calls on its poor fund.

By a special clause in this law medical relief is in no case to be continued to the same individual for the same illness for

more than three months in one year.

Although none of the other cantons have as yet succeeded in Proposals for carrying through any measure of compulsory insurance against its introduction illness, the question has for some years past engaged the attention into other of the legislative councils of Bale-Ville, Geneva, Aargau, and cantons. Zürich, in all of which cantons measures in various stages of advancement are under consideration.

. :

In the canton of Bâle-Ville the idea was first started in the Bale-Ville. year 1875, when the town was visited by a severe epidemic of Since that date various measures dealing with the subject have been discussed, and one was actually passed last year by the Cantonal Council, although, as has already been reported, it was subsequently rejected by the people on submission to the Referendum.

A new Bill has since been prepared which, it is hoped, will meet with a better reception, as, profiting by past experience, it proposes to utilise the machinery of the existing mutual aid societies, whose members led the opposition to the rejected law.

A measure introduced in the Cantonal Council of Geneva in Geneva. 1887 has since been remodelled by its authors, and is awaiting the final decision of that assembly. Its main idea is to entrust the general hospital at Geneva with the task of organising, in conjunction with the communes, a system of insurance against illness, obligatory on all citizens of the canton above 18 years of age, and optional for all other Swiss citizens domiciled in it. The Executive Committee of the Hospital is, it is proposed, to consist of 25 members to be selected by the various legislative and municipal authorities of the canton, and an annual subsidy not exceeding 6,000l. is to be granted from cantonal funds.

In addition to medical treatment the system contemplates the grant of a daily allowance to those who are disabled by illness, except in cases where their insurance premiums are found to be

in arrears owing to idleness or misconduct.

Financial and other difficulties have hitherto stood in the way Acreau. of the realisation of a scheme which, when presented to the Cantonal Council of Aargau in 1888, met with the approval of the Government and of the majority of that assembly.

According to its terms insurance was to be made compulsory for all classes of workmen, domestic servants, &c., by means of insurance societies to be created in the different communes. Mutual aid societies of over 100 members, in which the relief afforded came up to the required standard, might, on submission

(1130)

to Government control, acquire the same status as the compulsory insurance associations.

It was proposed that the weekly premium should be fixed at 2d. for those under 16 years of age and at 3d. for adults, and that employers of labour should be required to contribute \( \frac{1}{4} \). a week for all in their employ. For all cases not received into a hospital free medical treatment was to be provided, while after the third day's illness a daily allowance was to be granted, amounting to 5d. for those under 16, and to 10d. for adults and for women during a period of four weeks after a confinement. member of one of these associations was unable through absence in some other locality to avail himself of the privileges to which he was entitled in case of illness, a daily allowance of 1s. 3d. was to be made to him. Thirteen weeks was fixed as the limit of time for receipt of relief by the same individual, while any deficit in the accounts of these societies was to be made good by the particular commune interested and by the State conjointly.

Zárich.

In the canton of Zürich various plans of compulsory insurance have been mooted in the course of the last few years. At one time indeed an idea was started that the object aimed at might be attained by instituting a system of general medical relief to be administered by the hospitals, doctors, chemists, &c., under State supervision, but no practical step seems ever to have been taken for carrying it into effect. In 1889, however, a Bill was presented to the Cantonal Council for the compulsory insurance of workmen and domestic servants above the age of 18 years by means of special insurance societies to be created in the communes, which were to be worked in connection with the existing mutual aid societies on the principle of free circulation (freizügigkeit) between all the different associations—members of one being thus enabled on changing their domicile to pass into another society and to acquire the full rights of membership. All mutual aid societies entering into this combination were to offer the same advantages to their members as the compulsory associations, while their financial administration and medical arrangements were to be subject to the control of the communal authorities. Subventions, varying in amount according to the necessities of each particular case, were to be granted equally to both classes of these societies.

The Bill lays down various rules respecting the nature of the relief to be afforded, fixes the daily sick pay at 10d after the third day's illness, but limits the total amount to be received by the same individual in the course of the year to 4l, or to half this amount if his case is treated in a hospital. As regards the payment of the monthly premium of 10d, it proposes that in the case of domestic servants half should be paid by the master, but that in the case of workmen the whole amount should be paid by the employer, subject to the right on the part of the latter to recoup himself by deducting from the workmen's wages a sum not exceeding 2 per cent. of the total amount.

The Bill would, moreover, guard against all attempts at

fraudulent aimulation of illness by creating in each commune a board of medical inspection, and by imposing on all members, collectively and individually, the duty of protecting the interests of their societies against any abuses of this nature.

Two other clauses of the Bill are worthy of note.

The first of these empowers the compulsory societies to require a certificate of health from all those presenting themselves for insurance, and to refuse admission to all persons suffering from an acute or chronic disorder, or who are above the age of 60 years. As, however, such persons would find the mutual aid societies likewise closed to them, the Bill proposes to create polyclinics for their reception and treatment in all districts where no such institution exists.

The other clause referred to authorises them to compel any local practitioner to accept the duties of medical officer, in the event of their being unable to make any private arrangement for

filling up the post.

Such then have been the principal measures proposed for introducing compulsory insurance against illness into certain individual cantons, and although, with the exception of those passed by the legislatures of St. Gall and Appenzell, none have as Probability of yet been definitely adopted, the idea itself has been made familiar the ultimate adoption of to the public mind, while the advanced stage reached by some these renders their adoption a mere question of time, unless indeed they measures. should be withdrawn when the measure of compulsory national insurance, now being prepared by the Federal Government, shall have become the law for the whole of Switzerland.

Turning, however, from these various projects of cantonal insurance, let us now see what results have been obtained when the solution of the question of insurance against illness, infirmity, old age, and death, and of securing a provision for widows and orphans, as well as for those condemned to a life of idleness by

sickness and infirmity, has been left to private initiative.

Mutual aid societies for the attainment of one or other of these objects have for a long time past been doing good work in Switzerland, some three or four of them dating their actual foundation as far back as the 16th and 17th century. During the Mutual aid last 25 years their number must have certainly doubled, for, societies. according to the latest available statistics, there were 1,085 such societies in existence in 1880, as against 632 in 1865, while in the last 10 years they have been constantly adding to their number. The roll of members, moreover, increased from 96,003 in 1865 to 209,820 in 1880, being, in a population of 2,846,102, at the rate of one member to every 13.6 inhabitants.

Out of these 1,085 societies, 919 insure their members against Their number illness, 84 secure them a provision for old age and infirmity, or and objects. grant allowances to their widows and orphans, and 82 merely insure their lives. These last-named societies increased from 15 in 1865 to 82 in 1880, the largest of them numbering 2,671 members, and the smallest 38. The principle on which they are worked is that every member, on the death of an associate, has

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to pay a fixed sum, varying from 2d. in some to 10d. in others, and in two cases to as much as 4s. 2d., which after defraying funeral expenses forms a fund for the support of the widow and children.

Nature of the

The 919 societies that insure their members against sickness relief afforded may roughly be classed as follows as regards the nature of the relief afforded:-

> 558 merely grant a daily money allowance to members who are disabled by sickness.

129 pay the doctor's fees as well.

83 grant the allowance, pay the doctor's fees, and provide medicine gratis.

3 do nothing but pay the doctor's fees.

111 pay for the doctor and medicines, or for the patient's treatment in a hospital.

No particulars are forthcoming as regards the relief afforded

by the remaining 35.

It would thus appear that the most pressing duty of these societies is to make provision for the material loss occasioned by illness. Several, however, of those which only give what is termed the "indemnité de chômage," or sick pay, affect a certain portion of it to the treatment of the case in a hospital.

The average number of members belonging to a society is Average number of 201: 25 however have over 1,000 members, and 288 under 50. membera. Men represent 78.3 per cent., women 20.8 per cent., and children

0.9 per cent. of these numbers.

Area of their operations.

As regards the area of their operations, 621 comprise a single commune; 165 comprise two communes; 70 comprise a whole canton; 10 comprise the whole of Switzerland; 197 comprise a

single factory; and 22 comprise a single railway company.

The societies may be divided into two classes—the purely optional, numbering 675, or 62 per cent., and the obligatory, numbering 410, or 38 per cent. The obligation of entrance into these latter is imposed by certain railway companies, manufacturers, or other employers of labour, on those in their employ, or by societies of workmen, freemasons, &c., on their members.

Fortune, revenue and expenditure.

The net fortune of all these societies amounted in 1880 to 666,117l., being at the rate of about 3l. 3s. per member, while their revenue for that year reached the sum of 154,358l, or about 15s. 3d. per member, derived from the following sources:—

Subscriptions and entranc	e fee	of mer	nbers	••	••	••	102,840
Contributions of honorary				&c.	••	••	17,572
Interest, fines, &c	••	• •	• •	••	••	••	84,446

Their expenditure, on the other hand, amounted to 117,615L, being at the rate of about 11s. 8d. per member, apportioned approximately as follows:—

						£
Sick pay	••	••	••		••	88,767
Medical expenses	••	••		••	••	17,019
Payments on death	• •		••	••	• •	19,746
Allowances to widows	and or	phans	• •	••	••	16,754
" aged ar	d infir	m men	bers	• •	••	18,835
Sundry expenses		• •	••	• •	••	6,002
Administrative expens	ses	••	••	• •	••	5,992

According to more detailed information supplied by 675 of the societies, which insure against illness, it appears that 117 of them are composed exclusively of members of certain trades (compagnons), 269 of workmen and servants, while 289 are of a

general character, and open to all alike.

The first of these classes numbered, in the year 1880, 8,489 Statistics as members, and relieved 2,460 cases of illness, extending over a to cases and number of total of 49,207 days; the second, with 45,285 members, relieved days of illness 14,433 cases extending over 275,255 days; and the third, with relieved. 54,630 members, relieved 13,001 cases extending over 338,884 days.

If again these societies be classified according to the length of Length of the period during which relief is afforded, the following results period during

are obtained: -

which relief is granted.

er of	Societie	18.	Number of Members.	Duration of Relief.	Average Annual Premium of Members.	Average Daily Cost of Relief per Case.
	•		31 199	3 months	Francs.	Francs. 1.83
						1.88
••	••	-		l year	11.15	1.21
••	••	••	27,000	Unlimited	18.66	1.82
	•••	•••••	• • • •	of Members.  31,183 30,245 20,017	of Members. of Relief.  31,183 3 months 30,245 6 months 20,017 1 year	of Members.   Of Members.   Premium of Members.   Francs.   8.71   11.22   12.15

Much has thus been accomplished by private means in the direction of insurance against illness, and the experience which these various societies have gained, as well as the machinery which they have set in motion, will doubtless be utilised by the Federal Government in framing their proposed measure of compulsory insurance. Many persons, however, would prefer that these societies should be left free to continue the good work which they have begun without any intervention of the State in their special branch of insurance. But apart from the fact that Reasons for it is almost impossible for any measure of compulsory insurance introducing a against accidents to be complete unless some provision is made in national it for cases of illness which are the direct consequence of such insurance. accidents, there are, in the opinion of many of the best judges, serious defects in the voluntary system as at present worked in this country.

The attainment of the object aimed at must, it is said, be Defects in the more difficult, while mistakes must be more common, in a system present of which the component societies differ so widely from each voluntary

other in administration, in the number, age and sex of their members, in the rate of the premiums charged and in the nature and duration of the relief afforded.

In many societies, indeed, insurance against sickness, the primary object for which they were started, has, through neglect of the proper safeguards, gradually been converted into insurance against old age and infirmity; the scale of premiums remaining the same, although quite unsuited to the altered character of the undertaking. In others, again, but little attention seems to be paid to maintaining a proper reserve fund, the one object of ambition being to reduce the scale of premiums to a minimum, or to raise the "indemnité de chômage" to a maximum. regards, moreover, this latter form of relief, some societies content themselves with verifying the actual fact of illness, without inquiring further whether any portion of the money granted to relieve it is expended in obtaining proper medical treatment.

Their unequal distribution and the excessive number of mail societies.

The unequal manner in which the societies are distributed over the country, and the constant increase in the number of small societies are also considered serious drawbacks to the development of any system of insurance. Professor Kinkelin, one of the most competent authorities on the subject, to whom we are indebted for much of the information contained in this report, draws attention to the fact that in some towns as many as 20 societies, averaging about 30 members each, may be found existing side by side in a state of vegetation from which, owing to their meagre resources, they are unable ever to escape. they, on the other hand, to join together so as to form one large society in which the public could place confidence, the number of members would rapidly increase, while the prospect of finding men among them capable of administering and developing the resources of the society would be proportionately greater. advantages to be reaped from combination, both by members individually, and by societies in their corporate capacities, are well exemplified in the cases of such societies as those of the cantons of Berne, of Vaud, and Neuchâtel, while the dangers which some contend must necessarily arise from the centralising tendency of such a system can, Professor Kinkelin thinks, be easily guarded against by establishing a local control over the administration of relief through the districts or communes of which the societies would be composed. Such an arrangement, moreover, would greatly facilitate the free circulation of members between one society and another, although, in order to avoid pecuniary loss being caused to any individual society, from the difference in age of the members, thus interchanged, he would propose that, when a member is obliged to leave his original society owing to a change of domicile, the surrender value due on his policy of insurance should be paid over by that society to the one into which he may eventually be received.

Constitution

To give some idea of the constitution of these larger societies, of the Mutual we may briefly sketch that of the Mutual Aid Society of the canton Aid Society of of Vaud founded in the year 1846, for the purpose of securing to the canton of Vaud, founded in the year 1846, for the purpose of securing to its members a provision in the case of illness.

The area of its operations embraces the whole canton, while it may, by a decision of a general meeting of members, effect an affiliation with similar societies of other cantons. All Swiss citizens and all foreigners born in the canton, or domiciled therein for a minimum term of two years, may, on the recommendation of two members, be admitted into it, provided that they are between the ages of 16 and 50, and that they can produce a certificate of health signed by a duly authorised medical practitioner.

The entrance fee is fixed at a sum varying from 4s. 2d. to 6s. 8d., and the monthly subscription of members at 10d. Members, whose subscriptions are three months in arrears, incur the penalty of expulsion unless they are over 65 years of age, and are in a state of destitution after having belonged to the society for 20

years.

The right to relief commences three months after the date of a member's admission, but no relief can be obtained until the fact of an illness having lasted three days at least has been established to the satisfaction of a doctor and of a duly authorised officer of the society. In cases of total disablement by illness a daily allowance of 1s. 3d. is granted for the first six months, of 10d. for the second six months, and of 5d. for the three months following. Should the illness last longer than 15 months, further special relief may be granted if compatible with the state of the society's finances. In cases of partial disablement the daily allowance is never to exceed 10d. No relief is given in cases of illness caused by a member's own misconduct.

During absence from the canton members lose all claim to assistance, but are, on the other hand, relieved from the payment

of their monthly subscription.

The funeral expenses of members are paid by the society, but

must in no case exceed the sum of 16s. 8d.

The society appoints guardians for orphans, and may in the case of illness or extreme poverty accord special relief to the widow or orphans of members of over five years' standing.

The capital of the society is composed of:

1. Entrance fees and donations, forming a reserve fund which is deposited in the Cantonal Bank and administered by the central committee.

2. The monthly subscriptions of members, constituting the working capital of the society, the management of which is in the hands of the district committees, subject to the supervision of the central committee.

The society is divided into local branches or sections. A new branch is established whenever 50 members of the society dwelling within the same district address a petition for the creation of one to the central committee. All members domiciled within such district are then obliged to join the local branch.

The members of these branches hold a general meeting every three months to pass the accounts of their committees, while they meet once a year to elect the members of these committees and to choose delegates to attend the general assembly of the society.

The committees appoint paid officers to inquire into all cases of sickness and to distribute relief.

A general meeting of the society, attended by one delegate for every 50 members of the local branches, is held once a year to elect the central committee, to frame or revise the statutes of the society, to pass accounts, to vote any special form of relief, and to settle all questions which may arise between the central and district committees.

The central committee is entrusted with the general administrative work of the society. It appoints a central accountant and a central agent, whose duty it is to correspond with the district committees and to examine and check their accounts.

The society cannot be dissolved so long as it counts 100 members, and in the event of dissolution its fortune is to be handed

over to some charitable institution.

Finally, as regards the question of the effect which the adoption of a measure of compulsory insurance is likely to have on the position of the voluntary societies, we may quote the views expressed by a member of the Council of States, M. Göttisheim, in an interesting report on the subject of compulsory insurance, which he has recently addressed to the Federal Government.

Referring to the fact that the number of days' illness resulting from accidents amounted during the 12 months ended March 31, 1889, to 19,521, he maintains that any measure of compulsory insurance against accidents must also make provision for insurance against illness. As, however, the former branch of insurance recognises the claim of the injured workman, not only to proper medical treatment, but also to an indemnity for the pecuniary loss entailed on him by the accident, the same principle must likewise be extended to disablement by sickness if the two forms of insurance are to be worked together.

The State, however, cannot limit its action to the mere grant of sick pay, as is at present done by the majority of the mutual aid societies, but must rather concentrate its energies on securing proper medical treatment in every case of illness, so that recovery of health may be as rapid, and the duration of the period of

incapacity to work as short as possible.

What, therefore, strikes M. Göttisheim as the most desirable solution of the question of the ultimate relations between the State and the voluntary societies is, that the former should confine itself to providing medical treatment, while the latter should devote their resources to furnishing pecuniary compensation for the loss occasioned by illness. Relieved by the State of the expenses of the medical treatment the societies would be in a far better position to furnish the sick pay to their members, while the members themselves would further benefit by the lower scale of the State premiums, more especially as a portion of these would in all probability have to be borne by the employers.

There are unfortunately, as he admits, several obstacles in the

way of the carrying out of such an arrangement.

Effect of a measure of national insurance on the position of the voluntary societies.

In the first place, the administrative machinery of the voluntary societies, though well enough adapted to the wants of their 209,920 members, would be quite inadequate if called on to deal with the 750,000 who will, it is calculated, come under the operation of the proposed measure of compulsory insurance.

In the second place, the distribution of the societies over the country at large is, as has already been pointed out, far from regular, as appears at once from the fact that in the canton of Fribourg, the population of which is 115,400, there are but three

such societies in existence.

In order, moreover, to utilise the services of the societies in any system of national insurance it will be necessary to place them more or less under Government control, and to modify their statutes so as to ensure uniformity as regards the scale of sick pay, &c. The loss of independence, however, which such a proceeding must entail, will certainly deter some among them from entering into a combination of this character with the State, and, as it would be impossible to attempt to realise any plan of national insurance through the exclusive agency of the remainder, the State will be compelled to supplement their deficiencies from other sources. This, M. Göttisheim suggests, might be done by creating communal or district societies in all localities that do not already possess a voluntary society either capable or willing of discharging the duties required of it.

The existing machinery of the voluntary societies would thus be utilised as far as is compatible with the public interest; the dangers resulting from over-centralisation would be avoided, while many of the anomalies of the present system would be got rid of.

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#### FOREIGN OFFICE.

1891.

#### MISCELLANEOUS SERIES.

No. 208.

## REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

### TURKEY.

# REPORT ON THE LIQUORICE PLANT FOUND ON THE BANKS OF THE TIGRIS AND EUPHRATES.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, JULY, 1891.

LONDON:
PRINTED FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE,
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1891.

[C. 6206—28.]

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#### TURKEY.

#### BUSSORAH.

Report by Consul Chenevix-Trench on the Liquorice Plant found on the Banks of the Tigris and Euphrates.

The great rivers of the Tigris and Euphrates in the part where the liquorice root is found flow through flat treeless prairies of uncultivated and nearly uninhabited land, capable with irrigation of producing any grain.

For three months of the year hot winds blow, and the temperature reaches 104 degrees. For six months the climate is moderate and salubrious, and for three months bleak and wintry,

the thermometer going down to 30 degrees at night.

The liquorice plant is a small shrub, with light foliage, growing to about 3 feet high, invariably where its root can reach the water. It grows without any cultivation. No lands are leased for the purpose, and no objection is made to its being collected.

It is found in abundance, from Ctesiphon, 20 miles from Baghdad, down to Kut-ul-Anara, 178 miles—the latter place being half-way between the ports of Bussorah and Baghdad.

It grows on red earth soil, and also on light, almost sandy soil, where the wood is best—provided it has plenty of water, and the ground is not more than 50 yards from the actual river or stream.

The one firm which works it in Baghdad is Messrs. Zerlendi and Essavie; and it is well known that the business is a

prosperous one.

The plant is dug up by Arab labour, which is generally speaking plentiful, and the men can be brought by boat to where the plant is growing. The labourers need superintendence. They are paid according to the quantity dug.

The wood, after being once dug up and cut, grows again better

afterwards. (See attached French letter marked A.)

The time of collecting is, generally speaking, during the winter, but it is possible all the year round.

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The root when dug is full of water, and must be allowed to dry; this process takes the best part of a year, especially in hot weather.

After it is dry, or during the process, it is sawn or cut into small pieces 6 inches to 1 foot long. The good and sound pieces are kept, and the rotten bits removed for firewood.

A local tax of 10 per cent. is claimed by the Government, which may be taken in money or kind from roots cut from the

Sultan's lands, and 20 per cent. from Government lands.

It is then shipped in river native boats for Bussorah, where there is a wool hydraulic press, the property of Messrs. Gray and Mackenzie. It is afterwards shipped in pressed bales to London, and again shipped from there to America, where it is used largely in the manufacture of tobacco.

The trade is capable of expansion. The demand in America is great, and shipments are easily disposed of. "Any amount always easily sold" is an extract from a letter from an American firm

to Messrs. Zerlendi and Essayie.

After all sorting, &c., there still remains some useless wood

in the bales, perhaps 7 per cent.

Attached is a table showing the cost of the whole process, from figures supplied through the courtesy of Messrs. Zerlendi and Essayie, and verified from other sources.

#### Annex A.

Monsieur G. Chenevix-Trench.

Monsieur, Baghdad, mai 14 1891.

En réponse à votre demande nous nous hâtons de vous donner avec bien de plaisir les informations que vous désirez avoir.

Comme les ouvriers se font payer par poids, dans l'excavation, ils coupent moyennant des hâches la partie supérieure de la racine, qui est naturellement grosse et pesante en laissant dans la terre dans une profondeur de 🤻 de mètre au delà la partie mince de la racine. Ces bouts de racine abandonnés, trouvant la terre labourée, se développent et atteignent dans l'espace de quatre ans une grosseur de 12 mètres de diamètre qu'ils dépassent si la qualité du sol leur est propice. Ces nouvelles racines que nous pouvons nommer à juste titre "bois de réglisse cultivé "ont un aspect très-benu, leur écorce est lisse et belle, leur intérieur d'une couleur jaune claire, les baguettes en général droites et bien formées; cependant elles ne sont pas aussi riches en glycerrhizine que les grosses racines récoltées la première fois, que nous pouvons désigner sous le nom de "bois de réglisse naturel." Cette exiguité de glycerrhizine est bien explicable: le canal médullaire des racines jeunes est, en proportion de leur grosseur, très-gros, et comme dans le canal il n'y a qu'une très-petite dose de glycerrhizine il advient que les racines jeunes contiennent moins de glycerrhizine que les naturelles, dont le canal à proportion de la

grosseur de la racine est incomparablement très-mince.

Nous serions bien enchantés, monsieur, si les informations que nous venons de vous donner peuvent vous agréer, dans cet espoir nous avons l'honneur de vous présenter nos civilités bien empressées.

Tout à vous,
ZERLENDI ET ESSAYIE.

#### Annex B.

Monsieur G. Chenevix-Trench.

Monsieur, Baghdad, mai 14 1891.

Voilà les éclaircissements sur les questions que vous nous faites. Le bois de chauffage se vend à 1,000 okes le taghar, mais pour le bois de réglisse nous autres avons établi avec nos ouvriers d'excavation la condition de 2,000 okes le taghar pour bois frais; le prix donc de 120-130 pias., s'entend en bonne monnaie à 103‡ pias. la livre turque, pour les 2,000 okes fraiches, il en est de même aussi pour le coupage de 25 pias. les 2,000 okes en bonne monnaie.

Veuillez, monsieur, disposer de nous toutes les fois que vous nous jugeriez capables à vous servir et agréer les protestations de

notre parfaite estime et considération.

ZERLENDI ET ESSAYIE.

TABLE showing Average Cost of One Ton of Liquorice Plant.

Description of Charges.	Amount.	Average Statement of Cost of One Ton of Liquorice Root.	Remarks.
1. Cost of labour for digging root	120 to 130 pias.* per 1 taghar of 2,000	Pias.	Owing to the extra weight caused by water in the wood, and the rough nature of the substance. I tachar is counted as 2,000 okes
2. Cost of cutting and sorting root	25 pias, per 1 taghar of 2,000 okes	20	instead of 1,000, by the firm of Zerlendi and Essayie, in their dealings with the arabs, ie, until the root is shipped for Bussorah, soe Franch latter marked R
3. Local duty	10 per cent. from Sultan's property 20 Government land	} 15	In money or kind.
4. Freight from bagndad to bussoran	okes okes	64	The freight varies much according to whether
<ul><li>Cost of pressing</li><li>Turkish export duty custom house</li><li>Freight from press to ship's side</li></ul>	1914 pias. to 2025 pias. per ton 1 per cent 2s. to 3s. per ton	$\begin{array}{c} 197 \\ 2 \\ 12 \end{array}$	where is being suipped as the time of not.
8. ", Bussorah to London	About 80s, per 40 cubic feet Average cost of 1 ton of liquorice root from	:	406 pias, at 164 pias, = £ sterling = 2 10
	time of collection to arrival in London	:	o et

\* Plastres - Grand Signior Plastres or Government Plastres.

Norm.—Turkish weights—1 taghar—1,000 okes; 1 oke—24 lbs.; 1 taghar taken as 14 tons. Liquorice—1 ton rough root—60 cubic feet pressed; 1 bale—114 cubic feet.

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#### COMMERCIAL. No. 17 (1891).

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#### INDEX TO REPORTS

OF

## HER MAJESTY'S DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR REPRESENTATIVES ABROAD

ON

### TRADE

AND

#### SUBJECTS OF GENERAL INTEREST.

#### (WITH APPENDIX.)

1886-1890.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, July, 1891.

PRINTED FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE, BY HARRISON AND SONS, ST. MARTIN'S LANE, PRINTERS IN ORDINARY TO HER MAJESTY.

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1891.

[C. 6874.]

Price One Shilling.

#### INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

A few words explanatory of the scope and object of the second

issue of this work\* may not be out of place.

Prior to the year 1886 it was the practice of the Foreign Office to publish the reports of Her Majesty's Diplomatic and Consular representatives abroad on trade, finance, and subjects of general interest, in Blue Books, at various intervals, when a sufficient number had been received to make a fair-sized volume. These Blue Books were published only during the Session of This system, however, Parliament, or shortly after its close. was open to two serious objections. In the first place, a person requiring a particular report on a specific subject found himself compelled to purchase a volume containing a quantity of extraneous matter, possibly of no interest to him, and at a cost consequently in excess of the value of what he really required. A still graver objection lay in the fact that while one report might be printed and ready for publication, it had to wait till others were received in a sufficient number to make up a Blue Book. Considerable delay was thus at times occasioned, and the value of the earlier papers proportionately diminished. Lord Rosebery, when Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, readily recognising the force of these objections which were then strongly urged, took effectual steps to remedy them by ordering a separate publication of all reports both during the Session of Parliament and in the recess. This arrangement met with the unanimous approval of the Public and the Press. and the reports were, henceforward, issued at a price well within the reach of all classes.

The Series thus established are divided into two categories, "Annual" and "Miscellaneous." In the former are comprised reports on Trade and Finance, which are annually required from Her Majesty's Missions and Consulates abroad. In the latter are included reports on subjects of general economic interest, which are either specially called for by the Secretary of State or voluntarily submitted for publication by their authors. Each of these series have their consecutive numbers, which run on from year to year. From the summer of 1886 down to the end of 1890, 812 reports of the Annual, and 188 of the Miscellaneous Series.

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The first was published in 1889 (Parliamentary Paper, No. 27, Commercial [C. 5868]), and the references, down to the end of 1888, which it contained are included in the present work.

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have been issued in the separate form, and it is to the salient features of these 1,000 reports that the body of the present work is designed to facilitate reference. The system adopted is as follows: The black numeral preceding the letter A. or M. refers to the number of the paper; the letters themselves refer to the series. "Annual" or "Miscellaneous," as the case may be; and the smaller figures, following the letter, denote the page on which the subject is referred to. From what has been said above it will be seen that, with certain exceptions, the majority of the reports received from abroad, and which it is deemed expedient to make public, are now issued separately in one of the two series referred But it not unfrequently happens, when information from different countries on a specific subject is required, that it is considered preferable to publish all replies collectively, and thus consolidate the information in one book. Examples of such cases as this may be found in the Volume of Reports on Co-operative Societies Abroad (No. 20, Coml., 1886); Laws Relating to Employers' Liability Abroad (No. 21, Coml., 1886), and numerous other instances. Such collective information is still published in Blue Books of the commercial series as Command Papers, and numbered according to the year of issue. The symbols of reference to such papers being somewhat different, all reports so published, together with those on subjects of general commercial interest which appeared prior to the arrangement made in 1886, and already referred to, have been dealt with in an Appendix which embraces a period of nine years, viz., from 1882 to 1890 inclusive.

As application is frequently made to the Foreign Office for these reports, it may be well to mention that they can be obtained from Eyre and Spottiswoode, East Harding-street, Fleet-street, E.C., and 32, Abingdon-street, Westminster, S.W.; or John Menzies, and Co., 12, Hanover-street, Edinburgh, and 88, and 90, West Nile-street, Glasgow; or Hodges, Figgis, and Co., 104, Grafton-street, Dublin; to whom direct application should be made, stating the number and the series, which will be sufficient to indicate the papers mentioned in the body of the report. To obtain those referred to in the Appendix, it is advisable to mention not only the commercial number, but also the year and command

number, which are printed in brackets for that purpose.

Foreign Office, July 3, 1891.

WILLOUGHBY MAYCOCK.

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#### HER MAJESTY'S DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR REPRESENTATIVES ABROAD

#### TRADE AND SUBJECTS OF GENERAL INTEREST.

#### 1886-1890.

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Kanagawa, 1885, 38, A., 19, 21, 22; 1886, 219, A., 10, 13; 1887, 413, A., 14, 15; 1888, 560, A., 11, 12; 1888-9, 754, A., 21, 34, 35.

Kertch, 1886, 115, A., 16; 1887, 346, A., 13; 1888, 536, A., 20; 1889, 675, A., 20.

Kewkiang, 1885-6, 112, A., 3; 1888, 511, A., 8; 1889, 704, A., 4. Kharput, 1885, 54, A., 1-4; 1886, 225, A., 3, 4; 1887, 527, A.,

11; 1888, 527, A., 13. Khorassan, 1889-90, 753, A., 9. Kiungchow, 1886, 132, A., 4; 1887, 297, A., 5, 6; 1888, 492, A., 6; 1889, **680**, A., 6.

Königsberg, 1885, 50, A., 1, 8, 9; 1885–87, 422, A., 6.

Kragero, 1886, 130, A., 23; 1887, 440, A., 89; 1888, 605, A., 38; 1889, **781**, A., 87.

La Guayra, 1888-9; **723**, A., 6. Landscrona, 1886, **131**, A., 13; 1887, **324**, A., 14; 1888, **524**, A., 20; 1889, **750**, A., 20.

Lanzarote, 1886, 148, A., 10.

Laraiche, 1885, 3, A., 7, 8; 1886, 209, A., 8; 1887, 360, A., 11, 12; 1888, 582, A., 17; 1889, 787, A., 15.

La Rochelle, 1886, 214, A., 11; 1887, 328, A., 6; 1888, 561, A., 15; 1889, **736**, A., 18.

Exports—continued. Laurium, 1889, 672, A., 5. Laurvig, 1886, 130, A., 18. Leghorn, 1886, 109, A., 1, 2; 1886-88, 701, A., 19, 21. Le Legué, 1886, 86, A., 7; 1887, 273, A., 7; 1888, 505, A., 9; 1889, **699**, A., 7. Le Mans, 1886, 91, A., 7; 1887, 271, A., 6; 1888, 473, A., 7; 656, A., 6. Libau, 1886, 167, A., 7, 8; 1887, 376, A., 8, 9; 1888, 516, A., 7; 1889, 667, A., 9. Licata, 1888, 576, A., 39; 1889, 762, A., 33. Lingah, 1887-8, 591, A., 8; 629, A., 12; 1889, 760, A., 10. Loanda, 1886, 333, A., 8, 9. Lofoden Islands, 1886, 130, A., 46; 1887, 440, A., 45; 1888, 605, A., 42; 1889, 781, A., 42. L'Orient, 1886, 86, A., 4, 5; 1887, 273, A., 8, 9; 1888, 505, A., 11; 1889, **699**, A., 9. Lota, 1888, 502, A., 3, 4, 5, 6; 1889, 743, A., 14. Lulea, 1888, 568, A., 15; 1889, 772, A., 12. Lysekil, 1887-8, 524, A., 12; 1888-9, 750, A., 11. Maceio, 1888, 606, A., 18. Madagascar, 1885-6, 201, A., 2, 10, 13, 14. Madeira, 1886, 150, A., 1; 1887, 401, A., 3; 1888, 460, A., 3; 1889, 665, A., 3. Malaga, 1885-6, 125, A., 13; 1886-7, 453, A., 1, 2, 10; 1888, **627**, A., **3** ; 1889, **802**, A., 8. Malmo, 1886, 131, A., 15; 1887, 324, A., 16; 1888, 524, A., 22; 1889, 750, A., 22. Mandal, 1886, 130, A., 28; 1887, 440, A., 46, 47; 1888, 605, A., 47; 1889, 781, A., 43. Manila, 1885, 6, A., 5, 6, 7. Maranham, 1885, 79, A., 2, 3, 4; 1887-8, 441, A., 7, 8; 1888-9. 636, A., 2; 1889, 812, A., 2. Maracaibo, 1889, 768, A., 5. Marin, 1886-7, 329, A., 18; 1887-87, 520, A., 18; 1888-9, 711, A., 29. Marsala, 1886, 239, A., 18, 19; 1887, 395, A., 24; 1888, 576, A., 42, 48; 1889, 762, A., 36, 87. Marseilles, 1885-6, 126, A., 8; 1886-7, 301, A., 8; 1888, 510, A., 9; 1889, 698, A., 9. Marstrand, 1887, 324, A., 10; 1888, 524, A., 13; 1889, 750, A., 12. Mazagan, 1886, 181, A., 13, 15; 1887, 326, A., 19, 20; 1888, 553, A., 17. Memel, 1885, 50, A., 16, 17; 1886-7, 422, A., 18; 1888-9, 808, A., 15. Mentone, 1886, 189, A., 12; 1887, 337, A., 12; 1888, 550, A., 10; 1889, 744, A., 14. Messina, 1887, 395, A., 18; 1888, 576, A., 31; 1889, 762, A., 24. Mexico, 1881-6, **396**, A., 48, 49; 1885-89, **637**, A., 3. Mobile, 1884-6, 92, A., 10, 11; 1887, 270, A., 26; 1888, 465, A., 22; 1889, 649, A., 15. Mogador, 1886, 181, A., 11, 12; 1887, 326, A., 13, 14; 1888, 553, A., 12, 13; 1889, 712, A., 11. Molde, 1886, 130, A., 37; 1887, 440, A., 48; 1888, 605, A., 48. Mollendo, 1886, 118, A., 2; 1887, 349, A., 2; 1888, 517, A., 3. Monaco, 1888, 550, A., 10; 1889, 744, A., 16,

Exports—continued. Morlaix, 1886, 86, A., 8.; 1887, 273, A., 5; 1888, 505, A., 8; 1889, **699**, A., 6. Mosjoen, 1886, 130, A., 43, 44; 1887-8, 605, A., 49; 1889, 781, A., 46. Moss, 1886, 130, A., 12; 1887, 440, A., 51; 1889, 781, A., 48. Mossamedes, 1887, 584, A., 5. Mozambique, 60, A., 4, 14, 16-21; 1888, 742, A., 8. Muscat, 1888-9, 629, A., 23. Nagasaki, 1885, 39, A., 1, 2, 7, 9; 1886, 204, A., 2, 3, 11, 12; 1887, 403, A., 2, 9; 589, A., 10; 1889, 751, A., 10. Namsos, 1886, 130, A., 43; 1887, 440, A., 53; 1888, 605, A., 53; 1889, 781, A., 49. Nantes, 1886, 214, A., 5; 1887, 411, A., 5; 1888, 561, A., 6; 1889, 736, A., 6. Naples, 1886, 174, A., 19; 1887-8, 615, A., 12, 13; 1888-9. **784**, A., 12. Nauplia, 1886, 78, A., 4 New Caledonia, 1887, 335, A., 5, 6; 1888, 521, A., 3; 1889, 758, A., 5. Newchwang, 1885, 13, A., 4; 1886, 170, A., 6; 1887, 377, A., 14-17; 1888, **566**, A., 11, 12; 1889, **716**, A., 6. New Orleans, 1886, 92, A., 4. Newport News, 1885, 20, A., 4, 5; 1886, 215, A., 4; 1887-88, **46**3, A., 14. New York, 1886, 182, A., 16, 17; 1887, 370, A., 16, 17; 1888, 545, A., 15, 16; 1889, 747, A., 15. Nice, 1886, 189, A., 9; 1887, 337, A., 8; 1888, 550, A., 5; 1889, **744**, A., 7. Nicolaieff, 1886, 115, A., 7, 9; 1887, 346, A., 7, 9; 1888, 536, A., 13; 1889, **706**, A., 20. Ningpo, 1886, 161, A., 4, 5; 1887, 365, A., 78; 1888, 523, A., 6, 7; 1889, 775, A., 2. Norfolk (Va.), 1888, 463, A., 11; 1889, 648, A., 12. Norway, 1885, 22, A., 1, 2; 1886, 251, A., 2, 20; 1887-8, 605, A., 9; 638, A., 8; 1888-9, 781, A., 12. Odessa, 1886, 115, A., 2, 6; 236, A., 3; 1887, 346, A., 4; 1888. 536, A., 7; 1889, 706, A., 11. Osaka, 1886, 123, A., 3; 1888, 594, A., 15. Oscarshamn, 1886, 178, A., 14; 1887, 368, A., 14; 1888, 568, A., 12; 1889, 772, A., 11. Pakhoi, 1886, 122, A., 1, 4; 1887, 298, A., 5, 6; 1888, 593, A., 6; 1889, 732, A., 10. Palermo, 1886, 239, A., 14; 1887, 395, A., 16; 1888, 576, A., 29; 1889, **762**, A., 22. Para, 1885-8, 807, A., 3. Paraiba, 1886, 179, A., 8; 1887-88, 606, A., 12. Patras, 1886, 78, A., 1, 3, 4. Pensacola, 1886, 92, A., 15, 16; 1887, 270, A., 18, 19; 1888, 465, A., 14, 15; 1889, 649, A., 27. Pernambuco, 1886, 179, A., 4, 5; 1887, 374, A., 5, 6; 1888, 606, A., 8. Pernau, 1886, 167, A., 5; 1887, 376, A., 5, 6; 1888, 516, A., 5; 1889, **667**, A., 14. Persia, 1885, **113**, A., 1. Philadelphia, 1886, 177, A., 11. Philippine Islands, 1885, 103, A., 7, 8; 1886, 295, A., 5, 6; 1887,

**494**, A., 4, 5.

**Exports**—continued. Poland, 1886, 128, A., 1, 2; 1887, 321, A., 2; 461, A., 2; 1887-8, **686**, A., 3. Porto Rico, 1886, 238, A., 6; 1887, 436, A., 6; 1888, 628, A., 8 Port Townsend, 1886, 186, A., 40, 41; 1887, 392, A., 7, 8; 1888, 555, A., 21. Porsgrund, 1886, 130, A., 21; 1889, 781, A., 53. Portland (Oregon), 1886, 186, A., 19, 20; 1887, 375, A., 10; 1888, 555, A., 11; 1889, 718, A., 15. Port Saïd, 1885–6, 142, A., 3, 8, 9; 294, A., 7. Portugal, 1885, 240, A., 5; 1886, 160, A., 1, 2, 5; 1887-8, 544, A., 5, 19-23; 1888-9, 700, A., 3-14. Poti, 1886, 115, A., 19; 1887, 346, A., 19; 1888, 536, A., 27; 1889, 677, A., 11. Prevesa, 1886-7, 394, A., 14, 15; 1888, 623, A., 20, 21. Providence, 1886, 182, A., 19, 21, 22; 1887, 370, A., 24; 1888, **545**, A., 20, 21; 1889, **747**, A., 21. Puerto Cabello, 1885, 43, A., 1, 3; 1886, 144, A., 1, 3. Puerto Plata, 1886, 87, A., 1, 3, 4; 1887, 284, A., 2; 1889, 729, A., 2. Quilimane, 1884-5-6, 414, A., 7. Rabat, 1885, 3, A., 11; 1886, 209, A., 10; 1887, 360, A., 10, 11; 1888, **582**, A., 22; 1889, **787**, A., 13. Resht, 113, A., 10. Réunion, 1885, 44, A., 1, 2; 1886, 207, A., 1; 1887, 437, A., 5; 1888, **624**, A., 6. Reval, 1884-5, 73, A., 14; 1885-6, 248, A., 15; 1889, 777, A., 40. Richmond (Va.), 1888, 463, A., 9; 1889, 648, A., 15. Riga, 1886, 167, A., 1, 3; 1887, 376, A., 3, 4; 1888, 516, A., 3; 1889, **667**, A., 6. Rio Grande de Norte, 1888, 606, A., 13. Rio Grande do Sul, 1885, 32, A., 10; 1886, 216, A., 5; 1888-89, **702**, A., 10; 1885–8, **807**, A., 2. Rio Janeiro, 1886, 106, A., 3, 4; 217, A., 7; 1887, 265, A., 7,8; 1885–8, **807**, A., 2. Riposto, 1886-7, 395, A., 21; 1888, 576, A., 34; 1888-9, 762, A., 28. Risor, 1886, 130, A., 24; 1887, 440, A., 58; 1888, 605, A., 59; 1889, **781**, A., 55. Rotterdam, 1885, 58, A., 1, 2, 4, 8; 1886, 213, A., 3, 4, 7, 8. Rouen, 1886, 96, A., 14, 16; 1887, 277, A., 14; 1888, 486, A., 18; 1889, **671**, A., 26. Roumania, 1886, **250**, A., 2; 1887, **268**, A., 9; 1888, **475**, A., 4, 8; 1889, **662**, A., 12. Roumelia, E., 1884–5, **70**, A., 3, 4; 1886, **185**, A., 3; 1887, **325**, A., 2, 3; 1888, **567,** A., 5, 9–12. Russia, 1879-85, 108, A., 6; 1884-7, 223, A., 9-16; 1874-87, **447**, A., 2, 18, 19; 1884–88, **564**, A., 13, 15; 1888–9, 777, A., 29. Saffi, 1886, 181, A., 16; 1887, 326, A., 16, 17; 1888, 553, A., 14, 15. Saigon, 1886, 90, A., 1. St. Jago de Cuba, 1883-7, **327**, A., 10. St. Louis, 1887, 330, A., 18, 19. St. Malo, 1886, 91, A., 6; 1887, 271, A., 5; 1888, 473, A., 6; 1889, 656, A., 6.

St. Michaels, 1885, 9, A., 2, 8.

Exports—continued. St. Nazaire, 1886, 214, A., 14, 15; 1887, 411, A., 9; 1888, 561, A., 7; 1889, 736, A., 8. St. Petersburg, 1884-5, 73, A., 11; 1884-87, 564, A., 14; 1889, 777, A., 4. Salonica 1883-4, 24, A., 3, 8; 1885, 75, A., 1, 4, 9, 10; 1886, 254, A., 6; 1887-88, 623, A., 13. Salvador, 1886-7, 378, A., 4, 5; 1888, 548, A., 4; 1889, 749, A., 6, 7. Samsoon 1885-6, 135, A., 10; 1886-7, 342, A., 11; 1888, 549, A., 10, 11; 1889, **689**, A., 9. Sandakan, 1880-5, 34, A., 3, 8. San Diego, 1886, **186**, A., 36, 37; 1887, **375**, A., 27; 1888, **555**, A., 34, 35; 1889, **718**, A., 58.
San Francisco, 1886, **186**, A., 11; 1887, **313**, A., 5; 1888, **555**, A., 4, 5; 1889, **718**, A., 7. San Lucar, 1886, 162, A., 7. Santa Martha, 1887, 316, A., 6, 9. Santander, 1887, 408, A., 9; 1888, 612, A., 7; 1889, 733, A., 8. Santo Domingo, 1886, 117, A., 2, 8; 1888, 482, A., 2. Santo Paolo, 1885-8, 807, A., 3. Santos, 1886, 168, A., 7, 8; 1887, 315, A., 6; 1888, 498, A., 4, 9; 1889, **693**, A., 7. Sarawak, 1885, 45, A., 1, 4. Sardinia, 1884-5, 51, A., 4; 1886, 154, A., 2, 4; 1887, 351, A., 6, 7; 1888, **586**, A., 4, 6; 1889, **748**, A., 5. Savannah, 1886, 136, A., 3; 1887, 311, A., 5; 1888, 531, A., 3; 1889, **691**, A., 5. Scutari (Albania), 1888, 537, A., 20. Serres, **623**, A., 21. Servia, 1886, **176**, A., 6; 1887–8, **534**, A., 21, 187–174. Sevastopol, 1886, 115, A., 11, 18; 1887, 346, A., 11; 1888, 536, A., 17; 1889, 706, A., 25. Seville, 1886, 162, A., 12; 1887, 350, A., 13; 1889, 714, A., 10. Shanghai, 1885, 14, A., 9, 12; 1886, 199, A., 9, 12; 1887, 387, A., 14, 17; 1888, 579, A., 16; 1889, 755, A., 10. Shiraz, 1887-8, **591**, A., 4; **629**, A., 11; 1888-9, **760**, A., 6. Sicily, 1885-6, 239, A., 2. Skien, 1886, 130, A., 21; 1887-8, 605, A., 57; 1889, 781, A., 53. Smyrna, 1885, 67, A., 5, 8, 9; 1886, 175, A., 3, 4; 1888, 587, A., 3; 1889, 764, A., 12. Söderhamm, 1885, 21, A., 7; 1886, 178, A., 14; 1887, 368, A., 14; 1888, 568, A., 16; 1889, 772, A., 15. Spezia, 1889, **696**, A., 15. Stavanger, 1886, 130, A., 33; 1887, 440, A., 60; 1888, 605, A., 61; 1889, 781, A., 57. Stettin, 1886, 211, A., 4, 5; 1887, 449, A., 27, 28; 1888, 547, A., 8, 12; 1889, 682, A., 11, 15. Stockholm, 1885, 21, A., 5; 1886, 178, A., 8; 1887, 368, A., 8; 1888, **568**, A., 9; 1889, **772**, A., 9. Stromstad, 1886, 131, A., 7; 1887, 324, A., 7; 1888, 524, A., 9; 1889, 750. A., 9. Suakin, 1886, 82, A., 1-3; 1887, 272, A., 3, 4; 1888, 562, A., 3; 1889, **707**, A., 4. Suez, 1884-5, 84, A., 1, 2; 1887, 485, A., 15; 1888, 684, A., 9. Sundsvall, 1885, 21, A., 9; 1886, 178, A., 17; 1887, 368, A., 16; 1888, **568**, A., 13; 1889, **772**, A., 13.

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Exports—continued.
     Swatow, 1886, 183, A., 7; 1887, 304, A., 6, 7; 1888, 495, A., 9;
          1889, 681, A., 9.
     Sweden, 1880-4, 62, A., 1, 2, 6, 7, 8.
     Swinemunde, 1888, 547, A., 10; 1889, 682, A., 13.
     Switzerland, 1885, 57, A., 1, 2, 15-35; 1889, 791, A., 16.
    Syra, 1885, 37, A., 8, 5; 1886, 193, A., 4, 5, 7; 1887, 418,
A., 4; 1888, 557, A., 4, 5; 1889, 673, A., 4.
    Syracuse, 1888, 576, A., 38; 1889, 762, A., 30.
Tabreez, 1885, 69, A., 3; 1886-7, 241, A., 5; 1887-8, 445, A., 6; 1888-9, 611, A., 3; 1889-90, 798, A., 7.
     Taganrog, 1886, 80, A., 4, 13,* 1887, 263, A., 10; 1888, 491,
          A., 15; 1889, 675, A., 15.
     Tahiti, 1885, 36, A., 1, 2; 1886, 151, A., 4; 1887, 221, A., 1,
         319, A., 6; 1888, 602, A., 3; 635, A., 4; 1888-9, 759, A., 4.
     Taiwan, 1886, 156, A., 9; 1887, 332, A., 2, 4; 1888, 518, A., 8;
          1889, 703, A., 7.
     Tamsui, 1882-6, 124, A., 5; 1887, 283, A., 1; 1888, 575, A., 7;
          1889, 679, A., 6.
     Tangier, 1885, 3, A., 5, 6; 1886, 209, A., 2, 7; 1887, 360, A., 8;
          1888, 582, A., 10; 1889, 787, A., 8.
     Taranto, 1887, 397, A., 29, 30; 1889, 741, A., 13.
     Tarragona, 1886, 97, A., 30, 31; 1887, 274, A., 23, 24; 1888, 489, A., 25, 26; 1889, 692, A., 30.
     Temriuk, 1887, 263, A., 12; 1888, 491, A., 16; 1889, 675,
          A., 16.
    Teneriffe, 1885, 5, A., 3; 1886, 148, A., 3, 4, 6; 1888, 581, A., 5;
         1889, 757, A., 2.
     Terceira, 1885, 9, A., 7.
     Tetuan, 1885, 3, A., 9; 1886, 209, A., 11; 1887, 360, A., 14;
          1888, 582, A., 12; 1889, 787, A., 17.
    Texas, 1888, 458, A., 2.
     Tientsin, 1885, 15, A., 8, 2, 6; 1886, 190, A., 5, 7; 1888, 539,
          A., 3; 1889, 725, A., 4.
    Tonga, 1888, 601, A., 8.
    Tonnay-Charente, 1886, 214, A., 7; 1887, 411, A., 7; 1888, 561,
          A., 18; 1889, 736, A., 17.
     Tönsberg, 1887, 440, A., 68; 1888, 605, A., 69; 1889, 781,
          A., 61.
     Trapani, 1886, 239, A., 20, 21; 1887, 395, A., 26, 27; 1888
    576, A., 45; 1889, 762, A., 38.
Trebizond, 1885–6, 135, A., 6, 9; 1886–7, 342, A., 1, 7; 1888
         549, A., 5, 8; 1889, 689, A., 5.
    Trieste, 1885, 55, A., 3, 5, 6, 8; 1886, 233, A., 2, 4; 1887,
         430, A., 2; 1888, 607, A., 10.
    Tripoli, 1886, 89, A., 3, 4; 1887, 267, A., 2, 3; 1888, 476, A., 3;
         1889, 653, A., 4.
    Tromsö, 1886, 130, A., 48; 1887, 440, A., 65; 1888, 605, A., 67.
    Trouville, 1886, 96, A., 24, 25; 1887, 277, A., 26, 27; 1888, 486, A., 28; 1889, 671, A., 40.
    Truxillo, 1886, 107, A., 2; 1887, 364, A., 3.
    Tunis, 1886, 206, A., 8; 1887, 383, A., 13; 1888, 608, A., 3;
         1889, 785, A., 7.
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\* Error in value in last column, that opposite flour represents oilcake.

"" tallow "flour.

"" oilcake ", tallow.

Turkey, 1884-6, **197**, A., 8.

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Exports—continued.
     Uddevalla, 1886, 131, A., 9; 1887, 324, A., 9; 1888, 524, A., 11
          1889, 750, A., 10.
     United States, 1889, 731, A., 17.
     Uruguay, 1885, 129, A., 2; 1885-89, 794, A., 8, 12.
     Vadsö, 1886, 134, A., 52, 53; 1887, 440, A., 72; 1888, 605, A., 73; 1889, 781, A., 67.
     Valencia, 1888, 489, A., 16; 1889, 692, A., 19.
     Valparaiso, 1884-5, 120, A., 3, 4, 7.
     Van. 1886, 165, A., 4, 5; 1887-8, 527, A., 8.
     Vardo, 1886, 130, A., 51; 1887, 440, A., 70; 1888, 605, A., 71
          1889, 781, A., 64.
     Varna, 1884-5, 1, Å., 6; 1889, 752, A., 58.
Venezuela, 1888-9, 723, A., 2.
Venice, 1886, 245, A., 5, 7; 1887, 439, A., 4; 1888, 641, A., 7;
          1888-9, 809, A., 7.
     Vera Cruz, 1886, 146, A., 6, 17, 20, 21, 22; 1887, 322, A., 16,
          26, 27, 28, 29; 1888, 604, A., 14, 15; 1889, 786, A., 7.
     Vigo, 1986-7, 329, A., 14, 15; 1888, 520, A., 15; 1889, 711,
          A., 22.
     Volo, 1886, 98, A., 3; 1887-8, 559, A., 4.
Warberg, 1888, 524, A., 15; 1889, 750, A., 14.
     Wênchow, 1886, 139, A., 2; 1887, 285, A., 3, 4, 5; 1888, 513.
          A., 8; 1889, 688, A., 10.
     Wilmington (California), 1886, 186, A., 82, 33; 1887, 375, A.,
          22, 23; 1888, 555, A., 31, 32; 1889, 718, A., 49.
     Wilmington (Carolina), 1886, 137, A., 2, 20, 21, 22.
     Windau, 1886, 167, A., 9, 10; 1887, 376, A., 7; 1888, 516,
          A., 9; 1889, 667, A., 12.
     Wuhu, 1886, 159, A., 2, 6; 1887, 299, A., 5; 1888, 519, A., 4,
          1889, 676, A., 5.
     Yeisk, 1887, 263, A., 11; 1888, 491, A., 16; 1889, 675, A., 16.
     Yezd, 113, A., 15.
     Ystad, 524, A., 24; 1889, 750, A., 24. Zante, 1885, 17, A., 11.
Extradition.
     Servia (Treaties respecting), 534, A., 25.
Factories. (See also Labour, Wages, Strikes, and Appendix.)
     Adana, 571, A., 3.
Argentine Republic, 572, A., 4.
     Austria-Hungary (Inspector's Reports), 126, M.
     Bahia, 793, A., 5.
     Baltimore, 262, A., 1.
     Barcelona, 274, A., 2; 692, A., 10.
     Bavaria, 765, A., 10, 12.
     Bordeaux, 683, A., 23.
     Bourgas, 185, A., 6.
     Colombia, Republic of, 53, A., 5; 456, A., 11.
     Corunna, 711, A., 12.
     Genoa, 696, A., 9.
     Guatemala, 600, A., 9.
     Japan, 200, A., 4, 11, 23, 24.
     Libau, 167, A., 7.
     Lodz, 128, A., 4.
     Los Angeles, 186, A., 26, 27; 555, A., 28; 718, A., 41.
     Maceio, 606, A., 17.
    Malaga, 453, A., 4, 5.
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Factories—continued.
    Maranham, 812, A., 4.
    Mexico, 202, A., 7.
    Minas Geraes, 58, M., 8.
    Naples, 174, A., 4.
    New York (hours of labour in), 370, A., 9.
    Nice, 189, A., 7.
    North Carolina, 137, A., 13.
    Norway, 605, A., 6.
    Pernambuco, 179, A., 3; 606, A., 6.
    Philadelphia, 731, A., 18.
    Poland, 461, A., 8.
    Portland, Oregon, 186, A., 16,
    Porto Alegre, 216, A., 9.
    Roubaix (woollen and cotton at), 127, A., 27. Rouen, 277, A., 15.
    Servia, 176, A., 9.
    Stettin, 603, A., 19-26.
    Suakin, 272, A., 2.
    Switzerland, 791, A., 6.
    Tennessee, 169, A., 4.
    Treviso (Province of), 130, M., 6,
    Van, 165, A., 6,
    Vera Cruz (Cotton), 64, M.
    Wurtemberg, 789, A., 1; (Accidents in), 12.
Fahrsund.
    Trade of 1886, 130, A., 29; of 1887, 440, A., 24; of 1888, 605,
         A., 24; of 1889, 781, A., 24.
Failures (See Bankruptcy).
Famine.
    Adana, 406, A., 1.
Fans.
    Canton, 770, A., 4.
    Ningpo, 161, A., 2.
Feathers. (See also Ostrich Farming.)
    Somali Coast, 16, M., 2.
    Tripoli, 267, A., 2.
    Wuhu, 159, A., 2.
    Wurtemberg, 220, A., 10.
    Trade of 1887, 277, A., 27; of 1888, 486, A., 28; of 1889, 671,
         A., 40.
Fecula.
    Réunion, 207, A., 6.
Felspar.
    Norway, 781, A., 31.
Fermage, 338, A., 4.
Ferrol.
    Trade of 1886, 152, A., 13; of 1888, 520, A., 21; of 1889, 711,
Fertilisers, 137, A., 14; 311, A., 2, 3; 466, A., 4; 531, A., 2; 668,
Fezzes.
     Alexandria, 767, A., 14.
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Hungary, 1887, 512, A., 1; 1888, 710, A., 2. Ichang, 1884-5, 74, A., 6, 7; 1886, 261, A., 4, 5; 1887, 470, A., 3, 5; 1888, **625**, A., 8, 9; 1889, **687**, A., 4. Iloilo, 1886, 103, A., 4; 1887, 295, A., 7; 1888, 494, A., 7; Italy, 1835, 66, A., 3-21; 1888, 497, A., 1; 1889, 658, A., 14. Jaffa, 1886, 164, A., 3; 1887, 363, A., 4, 5; 1888, 529, A., 2; Janina, 1886-7, 394, A., 13; 1888, 623, A., 19. Japan, 1885, 47, A., 1, 2, 6; 7, M. 1; (specie) 95, A., 8; 1886, **200**, A., 1, 2, 3, 14, 27, 28; 1887, **426**, A., 9; 1888, **614**, A., Java, 1880-4, 7, A., 4; 1886, 143, A., 3, 6; 1887, 344, A., 6; 1888, **532**, A., 8; 1889, **695**, A., 9. Kanagawa, 1885, 38, A., 1-5, 19-21; 1886, 219, A., 11, 12, 13; 1887, 413, A., 12, 13, 15; 1888, 560, A., 9; 1888-9, 754, Kertch, 1886, 115, A., 14, 16; 1887, 346, A., 13; 1888, 536, Kewkiang, 1885-6, 112, A., 3; 1888, 511, A., 7, 9; 1889, 704, Kharput, 1885, 54, A., 1, 3, 4; 1886, 225, A., 4; 1887, 527, A., Khorassan, 1889-90, 753, A., 7, 8. Kiungchow, 1886, 132, A., 4, 5; 1887, 297, A., 5, 6; 1888, 492, À., 7; 1889, **680**, Λ., 7. Königsberg, 1885, 50, A., 1, 9; 1886-7, 422, A., 6. Kragero, 1886, 130, A., 23; 1887, 440, A., 39; 1888, 605, A., 38; 1889, **781**, A., 37. La Guayra, 1888-9, 723, A., 6. Landscrona, 1886, 131, A., 14; 1887, 324, A., 15; 1888, 524, A., 21; 1889, **750**, A., 21. Lanzarote, 1886, 148, A., 10. Laraiche, 1885, 3, A., 7, 8; 1886, 209, A., 8, 9; 1887, 360, A., 12; 1888, **582**, A., 17; 1889, **787**, A., 16. La Rochelle, 1886, 214, A., 11; 1887, 328, A., 6; 1888, 561, A., 15; 1889, **736**, A., 14. Laurium, 1889, 672, A., 5. Laurvig, 1886, 130, A., 18.

Leghorn, 1886, **109**, A., 1, 2; 1886-8, **701**, A., 18, 20. Le Legué, 1886, **86**, A., 6; 1887, **273**, A., 7; 1888, **505**, A., 10; 1889, **699**, A., 8. Le Mans, 1886, 91, A., 7; 1887, 271, A., 6; 1888, 473, A., 7; 1889, **656**, <u>A.</u>, 7. Libau, 1886, 167, A., 8; 1887, 376, A., 9; 1888, 516, A., 8; 1889, 667, A., 10. Licata, 1888, 576, A., 39; 1889, 762, A., 33. Lingah, 1887-8, 591, A., 7; 629, A., 13; 1889, 760, A., 9.

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    Lofoden Islands, 1886, 130, A., 47; 1887, 440, A., 45; 605, A.,
         42; 1889, 781, A., 42.
    L'Orient, 1886, 86, A., 5; 1887, 273, A., 8, 9; 1888, 505, A., 11,
         12; 1889, 699, A., 9.
    Lulea, 1888, 568, A., 15; 1889, 772, A., 12.
    Lysekil, 1889, 750, A., 12.
    Maceio, 1888, 606, A., 19.
    Madagascar, 1885-6, 201, A., 1, 2, 9, 10, 11, 12.
    Madeira, 1886, 150, A., 1; 1887, 401, A., 3; 1888, 460, A., 3, 4;
         1882, 665, A., 4.
    Malaga, 1886, 125, A., 1, 13; 1887, 453, A., 9; 1888, 627, A., 1;
         1889, 802, A., 7.
    Malmö, 1886, 131, A., 15; 1887, 324, A., 17; 1888, 524, A., 23;
         1889, 750, A., 23.
    Mandal, 1886, 130, A., 29; 1887, 440, A., 47; 1888, 605, A., 47;
        1889, 781, A., 43.
    Manfredonia, 1888, 615, A., 32.
    Manila, 1885, 6, A., 5, 7; 1886, 103, A., 7, 8.
    Maranham, 1885, 79, A., 2, 3; 1886-8, 441, A., 3; 1889, 812,
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    Marin, 1886-7, 329, A., 18; 1887-8, 520, A., 12; 1888-9, 711,
         A., 29.
    Marlstrand, 1887, 324, A., 10; 1888, 524, A., 13; 1889, 750,
         A., 13.
    Marsala, 1886, 239, A., 19; 1887, 395, A., 24; 1888, 576, A., 43; 1889, 762, A., 36.
    Marseilles, 1885-6, 126, A., 8; 1886-7, 301, A., 8; 1888, 510, A.,
         9.; 1889, 698, A., 8.
     Mazagan, 1886, 181, A., 13, 15; 1887, 326, A., 20; 1883, 553,
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     Memel, 1885, 50, A., 17; 1886-7, 422, A., 13; 1888-9, 808,
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         8; 1889, 744, A., I4.
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     Molde, 1886, 130, A., 38; 1887, 440, A., 49; 1888, 605, A., 48.
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Nantes, 1886, **214**, A., 5; 1987, **411**, A., 5; 1888, **561**, A., 6; 1889, **736**, A., 6.

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Nicolaieff, 1886, 115, A., 7, 10, 11; 1887, 346, A., 8, 9; 1888, 536, A., 13; 1889, 706, A., 20.

Ningpo, 1886, **161**, A., 4, 5; 1887, **365**, A., 8; 1888, **523**, A., 7; 1889, **775**, A., 2.

Norfolk (Va.), 1888, 463, A., 12; 1889, 648, A., 12.

Norway, 1885, 22, A., 1; 1886, 251, A., 2, 4; 1887, 440, A., 9; 1888, 605, A., 9; 1888–9, 781, A., 13.

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Osaka, 1886, 123, A., 2; 1887, 404, A., 2, 12; 1888, 594, A., 13, 14.

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Pakhoi, 1886, 122, A., 2, 5; 1887, 298, A., 6; 1888, 593, A., 7; 1889, 732, A., 10.

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Pernambuco, 1886, **179**, A., 4; 1887, **374**, A., 5, 6; 1888, **606**, A., 7.

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Piræus, 1885, 33, A., 6.

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Porto Rico, 1886, 238, A., 6; 1887, 436, A., 7; 1888, 628, A., 9. Port Saīd, 1884–5, 142, A., 8, 9; 1886, 294, A., 7, 8; 1887, 485, A., 9.

Port Townsend, 1886, 186, A., 40, 41; 1887, 392, A., 7, 8; 1888, 555, A., 22; 1889, 718, A., 32.

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         o. 10.
    Santo Domingo, 1886, 117, A., 2, 3; 1887-8, 482, A., 3.
     Santo Paolo, 1885-8, 807, A., 3.
     Santos, 1886, 168, A., 8; 1887, 315, A., 2, 6; 1888, 498, A.,
          4, 9; 1889, 693, A., 7.
     Sarawak, 1885, 45, A., 1, 4.
     Sardinia, 1884-5, 51, A., 3; 1886, 154, A., 2, 4; 1887, 351, A., 6, 7;
          1888, 586, A., 3, 4; 1889, 748, A., 5.
     Savannah, 1886, 136, A., 3; 1887, 311, A., 5; 1888, 531, A., 8;
          1889, 691, A., 6.
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     Sevastopol, 1886, 115, A., 11, 13; 1887, 346, A., 11; 1888, 536,
          A., 18; 1889, 706, A., 26.
     Seville, 1886, 162, A., 13; 1887, 350, A., 13; 1889, 714, A., 11.
     Shanghai, 1885, 14, A., 10–12; 1886, 199, A., 10, 11, 12; 1887, 387, A., 15, 17; 579, A., 17–19; 1889, 755, A., 11–18.
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          1888-9, 760, A, 6.
     Sicily, 1885-6, 239, A.. 2.
     Skien, 1885-6, 130, A., 21; 1887, 440, A., 57; 1888, 605, A., 57;
          1889, 781, A., 53.
     Smyrna, 1885, 67, A., 5–7, 13–15; 1886, 175, A., 3, 4, 6, 7; 1888,
          587, A., 4; 1889, 764, A., 12.
     Söderhamn, 1886, 178, A., 15; 1887, 368, A., 15; 1888, 568, A.,
          16; 1889, 772, A., 15.
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    Stockholm, 1885, 21, A., 4; 1886, 178, A., 7; 1887, 368, A., 9;
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     Strömstad, 1886, 131, A., 7; 1887, 324, A., 8; 1888, 524, A.,
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          1889, 707, A., 4.
    Suez, 1884-5, 84, A., 2; 1887, 485, A., 15; 1888, 684, A., 9.
     Sundsvall, 1885, 21, A., 9; 1886, 178, A., 17; 1887, 368, A., 16;
          1888, 568, A., 13; 1889, 772, A., 14.
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     Sweden, 1880-4, 62, A., 1, 2, 6, 7, 8.
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     22; 1888, 555, A., 32; 718, A., 49.
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     Windau, 1886, 167, A., 9, 10; 1887, 376, A., 7; 1888-9, 667,
     Wuhu, 1886, 159, A., 7; 1887, 299, A., 5; 1888, 519, A., 5;
          1889, 676, A., 5.
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By a printer's error, 2,000 was inadvertently made 2,000,000 deaths from smallpox in 1886.—[W.M.]

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Rio Grande do Norte, 1886, 179, A., 9; 1888, 606, A., 13.

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Risör, 1886, 130, A., 24; 1887, 440, A., 57; 1888, 605, A., 59.

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Saffi, 1886, 181, A., 16; 1887, 326, A., 16; 1888, 553, A., 14. Saigon, 1886, 90, A., 2, 3; 1887, 280, A., 3; 1888, 477, A., 4; 1889, **659**, A., 3.

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Stockholm, 1885, 21, A., 1, 3; 1886, 178, A., 1, 8, 9; 1887, 368, A., 1, 7, 8; 1888, **568**, A., 6, 7; 1889, **772**, A., 7. Strömstad, 1886, **131**, A., 7; 1887, **324**, A., 7; 1889, **750**, A., 8.

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Tamsui, 1886, 124, A., 2; 1887, 283, A., 1, 2; 1888, 575, A., 7; 1889, 679, A., 6.

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Taranto, 1887, 397, A., 30; 1889, 741, A., 11. Tarragona, 1886, 97, A., 30; 1887, 274, A., 24, 25; 1888, 489, A., 24; 1889, 692, A., 29.

Temriuk, 1887, 263, A., 12; 1888, 491, A., 16; 1889, 675, A., 16. Teneriffe, 1885, 5, A., 5, 6; 148, A., 1, 2, 3, 7, 8; 1886-7-8, 581,

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Tientsin, 1885, 15, A., 2, 7; 1886, 190, A., 3, 4; 1888, 539, A., 6; 1889, 725, A., 6.

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Tonnay-Charente, 1886, 214, A., 6; 1887, 411, A., 6; 1888, 561, A., 17; 1889, 736, A., 16.

Tönsberg, 1886, 130, A., 16; 1887, 440, A., 67; 1888, 605, A., 69; 1889, **781**, A., 62.

Trebizond, 1886, 135, A., 3, 9, 10; 1887, 342, A., 10; 1888, 549, A., 3, 8, 9; 1889, **689**, A., 9.

Trieste, 1885, 55, A., 2; 1886, 233, A., 8; 1887, 430, A., 11, 12, 13; 1888, 607, A., 2, 3

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